

COPYRIGHT STATEMENT

This copy of the thesis has been supplied on the condition that anyone who consults it is understood to recognise that its copyright rests with its author and that no quotation from the thesis and no information derived from it may be published without the author's prior consent.

THE IMPACT of CULTURE, LEADERSHIP, and POWER, on STAFF MOTIVATION in the CONTEXT of INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

by

ERDEM ERCIYES

A thesis submitted to Plymouth University in partial fulfilment for
the degree of

DOCTORATE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

School of Management
Faculty of Plymouth Business School
University of Plymouth
UNITED KINGDOM
April 2017

ABSTRACT

The Impact of Culture, Leadership, and Power, on Staff Motivation in the Context of International Organizations

Erdem Erciyes

This thesis investigates the impact of culture, leadership, and power, on staff motivation in selected international organizations (IOs), and develops a theoretical framework to assist with the practice of workforce motivation. The main research question is: “How can supervisors motivate their staff in the context of IOs?” Utilizing *critical theory* as a paradigm of inquiry, the study’s philosophical perspective leans heavily on “phenomenology”. Conducting this research led to the realization that there are a few studies in the existing literature on this subject matter. After investigating *grand theories*, the *meso theories* which form the theoretical background of the research were chosen, as: McClelland motivational theory, the GLOBE study, implicit leadership theory, and, Schein’s culture and leadership theory. Concern for understanding the cultural aspect led to the result of utilizing *critical ethnography methodology*. Moreover, three chief methods were used: Semi-structured interviews, focus groups, and, non-participant observations. Based on *volunteerism principle* and *quota sampling technique*, twenty-two supervisors, and the same number of staff, from the World Trade Organization (WTO), the International Trade Centre (ITC), the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), and the World Health Organization (WHO), all headquartered in Geneva-Switzerland, took part in interviews and focus groups. Non-participatory, structured, and overt observations, were also carried out on a three-day working schedule for the four IOs participating in the study. The gathered information was analysed, using *ethnographic data content analysis*, and the rigour of research was ensured through utilizing the concepts of *trustworthiness* and *reflexivity*. For the first time in the existing literature, the findings of this research have established a theoretical framework which demonstrates how concepts related to staff motivation work in the context of IOs. It further develops a definition of International Culture, as a metamorphosed pattern of values, beliefs, assumptions, social ideas, language, symbols, rituals and working customs formed by the fusion of national cultures and organizational culture in international settings. Regarding *power concept*, although the establishment of IOs was influenced by *Kantian deontological ethics*, except for the ITC staff and one UNCTAD staff, all others supported the *Machiavellian teleological approach*. On the subject of *motivation concept*, it was recognised that nationality does not make an impact on staff motivation. In conclusion, this study provides some useful recommendations for supervisors, officials of IOs, and researchers.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract.....	i
List of Tables.....	vii
List of Figures.....	viii
Abbreviation List	ix-x
Acknowledgements.....	xi
Author's Declaration	xii

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Statement of the Problem.....	1
1.2 Objective of the Study.....	2
1.3 Importance of the Study.....	2
1.4 Research Questions.....	2
1.5 Scope and Key Assumptions.....	3-4
1.6 Structure of the Study.....	4-5

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction	6
2.2 Theoretical Literature Review	6
2.2.1 Motivation Theories	6-19
2.2.2 Leadership Theories.....	20-32
2.2.3 Culture Theories	32-36
2.2.3.1 Organizational Culture	36-39
2.2.3.2 National Culture	39-44
2.2.4 Conclusion	45
2.3 Research Topic Literature Review	46
2.3.1 Philosophical Conception of International Organizations	46-50
2.3.2 The Motivation of Staff in International Organizations.....	51-55
2.3.3 Organizational Culture in International Organizations.....	56-59
2.3.4 Leadership in International Organizations	60-63
2.3.5 Conclusion	64

CHAPTER 3: THEORY

3.1 Introduction	65
3.2 GLOBE Study	67-68
3.3. McClelland's Motivation Theory.....	68-70
3.4. Implicit Leadership Theory	71-72
3.5. Schein's Culture and Leadership Theory	72-73
3.6. Conclusion	73

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction	74
4.2 Qualitative Research Design.....	74-78
4.3 Philosophical Perspective.....	79-80
4.4 Paradigms of Inquiry	81-82
4.5 Paradigms of Inquiry for this Research	83-86
4.6 Types of Methodology.....	87
4.7 The Methodology for this Research	88-91
4.8 Conclusion	91-92

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODS

5.1 Introduction.....	93
5.2 Subject Area.....	93-94
5.3 Data Collection Methods.....	94
5.3.1 Interview	95-96
5.3.2 Focus Group	96-97
5.3.3 Observation	97-98
5.4 The Methods for the Research	98-100
5.5 Selection of Participants	100-102
5.6 The Rigour in Relation to the Overall Research Process Regarding Paradigm of Inquiry, Methodology, and Methods.....	102-104
5.7 Rigour in Relation to Reliability, Validity, Generalization and Trustworthiness.....	104
5.7.1 Reliability.....	104-105
5.7.2 Generalisation.....	105
5.7.3 Validity.....	105-106
5.7.4 Objectivity.....	106-107
5.7.5 Trustworthiness.....	107

5.7.5.1 Transferability.....	107-108
5.7.5.2 Credibility.....	108-110
5.7.5.3 Dependability.....	110
5.7.5.4 Confirmability.....	111
5.7.5.5 Authenticity.....	111
5.8 Ethical Considerations.....	111-114
5.9 Coding.....	114-115
5.10 Conclusion.....	115

CHAPTER 6: The World Trade Organization

6.1 Introduction	116-117
6.2 Organizational Culture.....	118
6.2.1 Artifacts	118-120
6.2.2 Espoused Beliefs and Values.....	120-123
6.2.3 Basic Underlying Assumptions	123-124
6.3 National Culture	125-132
6.4 Power	133-134
6.5 Leadership	134-135
6.6 Motivation	136-140
6.7 Conclusion.....	140-141

CHAPTER 7: The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development

7.1 Introduction	142
7.2 Organizational Culture.....	142
7.2.1 Artifacts	142-145
7.2.2 Espoused Beliefs and Values.....	145
7.2.3 Basic Underlying Assumptions.....	146-149
7.3 National Culture	149-153
7.4 Power	153-155
7.5 Leadership	155-156
7.6 Motivation	156-159
7.7 Conclusion.....	159-160

CHAPTER 8: The International Trade Centre

8.1 Introduction.....	161
8.2 Organizational Culture.....	161
8.2.1 Artifacts	161-163
8.2.2 Espoused Beliefs and Values.....	164-165
8.2.3 Basic Underlying Assumptions	165-168
8.3 National Culture	168-172
8.4 Power	173-174
8.5 Leadership	174-175
8.6 Motivation	175-178
8.7 Conclusion.....	178-179

CHAPTER 9: The World Health Organization

9.1 Introduction	180
9.2 Organizational Culture.....	180
9.2.1 Artifacts	180-183
9.2.2 Espoused Beliefs and Values.....	183-185
9.2.3 Basic Underlying Assumptions	185-187
9.3 National Culture	187-190
9.4 Power	190-191
9.5 Leadership	191-192
9.6 Motivation	192-195
9.7 Conclusion.....	195

CHAPTER 10: Comparison of the International Organizations

10.1 Introduction.....	196
10.2 Organizational Culture	196-199
10.3 National Culture	202-204
10.4 Power	205-206
10.5 Leadership	206-208
10.6 Motivation	209-214
10.7 Conclusion.....	214-215

CHAPTER 11: Theoretical Framework and Practical Recommendations

11.1 Introduction.....	216
11.2 Theoretical Framework.....	216-221
11.3 Practical Recommendations.....	222
11.3.1 For the WTO Officials and Supervisors.....	222-223
11.3.2 For the UNCTAD Officials and Supervisors.....	223-224
11.3.3 For the ITC Officials and Supervisors.....	224-225
11.3.4 For the WHO Officials and Supervisors.....	225-226
11.4 Conclusion.....	226

CHAPTER 12: GENERAL CONCLUSION

12.1 Introduction.....	227
12.2 Overview of the Research	227-230
12.3 Contribution to Knowledge.....	230-232
12.4 Limitations.....	232-233
12.5 Self-Reflection.....	234-236
12.6 Recommendations for Future Studies.....	237

APPENDIX A: Semi-Structured Interview Questions.....	238
---	------------

APPENDIX B: Focus Group Research Map.....	239-244
--	----------------

APPENDIX C: Focus Group Evaluation Form	245
--	------------

APPENDIX D: Focus Group Guide.....	246
---	------------

APPENDIX E: Observation Plan	247
---	------------

APPENDIX F: Semi-Structured Interview Protocol	248
---	------------

APPENDIX G: Semi-Structured Interview Consent Form.....	249-250
--	----------------

APPENDIX H: Focus Group Consent Form.....	251-252
--	----------------

APPENDIX I: Coding of the Interviews	253-266
---	----------------

APPENDIX J: Coding of the Focus Groups	267-275
---	----------------

APPENDIX K: Coding of the Observations	276-285
---	----------------

REFERENCES.....	286-320
------------------------	----------------

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Comparison of Main Cultural Studies	44
Table 4.1: The Research Design	78
Table 6.1: Summary of the WTO Organizational Culture	124
Table 6.2: Summary of the WTO Participants' National Culture Characteristics	132
Table 7.1: Summary of the UNCTAD Organizational Culture	149
Table 7.2: Summary of UNCTAD Participants' National Cultural Characteristics	153
Table 8.1: Summary of the ITC Organizational Culture	168
Table 8.2: Summary of ITC Participants' National Cultural Characteristics	172
Table 9.1: Summary of the WHO Organizational Culture	187
Table 9.2: Summary of the WHO Participants' National Cultural Characteristics	190
Table 10.1: Comparison of the IOs' Organizational Culture.....	200-201
Table 10.2: Comparison of the IOs' National Culture	204
Table 10.3: Comparison of the IOs' Power Understandings	206
Table 10.4: Comparison of the IOs' Leadership Understandings	207-208
Table 10.5: Comparison of the IOs' Motivation Understandings	211-214

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 3.1: Typology of Theory	65
Figure 3.2: The Relationship of Meso Theories	66
Figure 4.1: The Model of Research Design	77
Figure 5.1: Research, Rigour, and Paradigm of Inquiry	104
Figure 11.1: The Flow Diagram of the Theoretical Framework	221

ABBREVIATION LIST

ASG: Assistant Secretary General
DSG: Deputy Secretary General
ECA: Ethnographic Content Analysis
ECOSOC: United Nations Economic and Social Council
ERG: Existence, Relatedness, Growth
EU: European Union
FO: Future Orientation
GATT: General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade
GE: Gender Egalitarianism
GHO: Global Health Observatory
GLOBE: Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness
GOARN: Global Outbreak Alert and Response Network
HIV: The Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HO: Humane Orientation
IBM: International Business Machines
IC: Institutional Collectivism
ICDDRDB: The International Centre for Diarrhoeal Disease Research
IGC: In-Group Collectivism
ILT: Implicit Leadership Theory
INGO: International Non-Governmental Organization
IO: International Organization
IPT: Implicit Personality Theory
ITC: International Trade Centre
IVC: Individualism versus Collectivism
IVR: Indulgence versus Restraint
LPC: Least Preferred Co-Worker
LVSTO: Long versus Short-Term Orientation
MVF: Masculinity versus Femininity
NATO: North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NPM: New Public Management
PD: Power Distance
PO: Performance Orientation
PPD: Public Private Dialogue

PRP: Prerequisite Programs
PSM: Public Service Motivation
SDG: Sustainable Development Goal
SDT: Self-determination Theory
SG: Secretary-General
SME: Small and Medium Enterprises
TAT: Thematic Apperception Test
THO: Transnational Hybrid Organizations
TMT: Temporal Motivation Theory
TSI: Trade Support Institutions
UA: Uncertainty Avoidance
UK: United Kingdom
UN: United Nations
UNCTAD: United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNICSC: United Nations International Civil Service Commission
US: United States
USG: Under-Secretary Assistant
USSR: Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
VERF: Voluntary Emergency Relief Found
WHO: World Health Organization
WTO: World Trade Organization

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First and foremost, I would like to thank my supervisor, Professor Kerry E. Howell, for his invaluable and sagacious guidance, but mostly for teaching me how to think critically. I also like to mention that without his navigation, I would have been lost on this long journey. Likewise, I would like to state my gratitude to Dr. Surabhi Aggarwal for having been genuinely accommodating whenever I needed her support. I would also like to convey my thanks to my peer, Ms. Arzoo Syeddah, for her contributory comments and suggestions, and Ms. Cher Cressey, for her assistance on administrative issues.

I would also like to express my deep and sincere gratefulness to Professor Fatos Hande Harmanci, Dr. Muslum Yilmaz, Dr. Yilmaz Akyüz, Dr. Rajesh Aggarwal, Dr. Sayed Irfan Makhdoom Nayyar, Dr. Ioanna Liouka, Dr. Gyula Csurgai, Mr. Austin Chehrazi, and Mr. Ndiogou Seck, for their aid throughout the research process.

Furthermore, I wish to state my appreciation to my mother-in-law, Gulsen Kilincarslan, and father-in-law, Mesut Kilincarslan, for their continual support. Similarly, I thank my brother, Emre Erciyes, and sister, Ebru Ister, for their sustained encouragement throughout all life's challenges, especially those I have had to face during this process. I owe a debt of gratitude to my wife, Gulsah Erciyes, for her continued understanding. I am also grateful to my beloved parents, Mehmet Erciyes and Sevim Erciyes, for their love, prayers, and all the sacrifices they have made on my behalf. Last but not least, I thank my dear son, Efe Erciyes, for bringing more love and meaning to my life.

AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis has been composed solely by myself and that it has not been submitted, in whole or in part, in any previous application for a degree. Except where states otherwise by reference or acknowledgment, the work presented is entirely my own.

During the course of the study, following activities have been undertaken:

- **Modules:** Induction and Introduction to Doctoral Study, Reflective Practice Reflexivity and Paradigms and Inquiry, Developing Methodological Approaches and Dealing with Methods Coursework, Understanding Paradigms and Inquiry, Identifying and Explaining Theory, History and Philosophy of Business and the Social Sciences, Plymouth University-UK,
- **Courses:** General Teaching Association and Structuring Your Thesis, Plymouth University-UK,
- **Certificates:** Postgraduate Certificate in Academic Practice (PGCAP600), Plymouth University-UK, Understanding Research Methods, University of London-UK (With Distinction), Solid Science: Research Methods, University of Amsterdam-Netherlands (With Distinction), International Organizations Management, University of Geneva-Switzerland (With Distinction), International Leadership and Organizational Behaviour, Bocconi University, Italia (With Distinction),
- **Associate Fellow** of the Higher Education Academy in the UK.

Word count of main body of thesis: 79088 Words

Signed:

Date:

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.1 Statement of the Problem

The term International Organization (IO) covers a broad spectrum. An IO is an entity which operates across borders and desires to instil universal values – such as peace, human rights, democracy, environmentalism, economic development, and social welfare – all across the world. IOs are composed of three or more member states and can be instituted through an intergovernmental agreement, or established by individuals, and/or associations, without such agreements. They can also be established by a combination of governmental and non-governmental organizations.

Along with the increasing number of global threats, such as, wars, terrorism, climate change, epidemic disease, economic crises, food scarcity, water depletion, and natural resource destruction, the need for, and importance of IOs rises day by day. Nowadays, it is possible to see IO agencies and staff even in the remotest corners of the world. Beginning with the demise of the Soviet Union, physical and mental borders dividing countries dissipated, and due to burgeoning supranational institutions, such as, the United Nations (UN), the European Union (EU), and the World Trade Organization (WTO), cultural transactions in international environments became more common. Concurrently, the terms, “multilateralism” and “global governance”, gained more importance (Reinalda, 2013).

In addition to these outcomes, due to the high salaries and professional prestige provided by these IOs, they became a most attractive job destination for members of manifold nationalities. Therefore, IOs have recently begun to acquire an abundant source of labour power with a distinctly international character. However, along with this cultural diversity, a number of administrative difficulties have also emerged. In line with this state of affairs, as they are different from classic public managers, IO supervisors should take into consideration cultural differences while managing multicultural teams. They should also develop specific motivational approaches as regards dealing with a multicultural workforce. Otherwise, the number of inefficient and discontented IO staff could increase and the resulting negative work environment would reflect on services provided by the institutions. In order to explore this phenomenon, from the varying perspectives of both the supervisors and their staff in social and cultural contexts, a qualitative study is undertaken.

1.2 Objective of the Study

The main research objective is to investigate the impact of culture, leadership and power on staff motivation in selected IOs and develop a theoretical framework to assist with the practice of staff motivation. Other specific objectives of this research are:

- a. Make an original contribution to the existing literature.
- b. Demonstrate how motivation, culture, and leadership concepts interact with each other.
- c. Identify and analyse different cultural backgrounds and perspectives.
- d. Provide useful recommendations for IO supervisors on how to motivate their multicultural workforce.

1.3 Importance of the Study

This study holds significant importance: Firstly, it will identify the main dynamics of motivation in the context of IOs. Secondly, it will provide a better understanding for IO supervisors when motivating members of their multinational teams. Thirdly, it will help establish a favourable and satisfactory work environment for IO staff. Fourthly, it will reveal how the reality of IOs has been shaped by historical developments and how their values have crystallized over time. Finally, it will make a significant contribution to the existing literature as relates to the concept of multicultural workforce motivation.

1.4 Research Questions

The main research question to be tackled in this thesis is as hereby indicated: “How can supervisors motivate their staff in the context of IOs?”

Subsidiary research questions to be analysed are as follows:

- a. What factors do IO supervisors consider when they desire to motivate staff who originate from different cultural backgrounds?
- b. Which scientific motivational approaches are used to encourage staff in IOs?
- c. What are the motivational expectations of staff in IOs?
- d. How do the motivation strategies of IO supervisors differentiate according to staff’s cultural backgrounds?
- e. Which motivational tools are the most effective for staff in IOs?

1.5 Scope and Key Assumptions

This study, further, investigates work motivation concepts in the scope of IOs. The empirical part of the research was conducted at the WTO, the UNCTAD, the ITC, and the WHO¹, all of which are headquartered in Geneva, Switzerland. Participants were selected from supervisors and staff of these organizations by utilizing quota sampling techniques.

The anonymity and privacy of participants were kept in strict confidentiality: no names or personal information were divulged at any phase of the study, or afterwards. In addition, research participation was based on the volunteerism principle and participants were informed that they would be free to withdraw at any time, if they desired so. To these effects, it was assumed that all participants answered questions truthfully and honestly. Furthermore, before the interviews, protocols and consent forms were provided to them. Therefore, it was assumed that they had read these protocols and had gained a general idea of the research and interview questions.

In order to grasp different cultural perspectives, GLOBE study's main cultural cluster framework was taken into consideration and participants from different clusters were encouraged to take part in this research. This act was based on the main assumption that nations which were in the same cluster show similar cultural characteristics and participants represent the main cultural traits of their nations.

The participant managers hold different ranks and manage a different number of staff. For example, most are P4, P5, D1 and D2 levels: while a P4 level manager may manage ten workers, a P5 level might manage no one, or two P4 levels with the same title of team-leader could manage totally different numbers of staff members. For this reason, the researcher decided to use the term *supervisor* in lieu of *manager*. Also, according to the number of managed staff members, supervisor levels have been differentiated, as senior, middle, and junior. Depending on the size of each organization, either five or six supervisors were involved in this research process.

¹ As a specialized agency of the UN, the WHO was established on 07 April 1948 in Geneva. It is the authority at the head of the international health system within the UN by providing leadership on critical health issues, advancing knowledge, shaping the research agenda, framing norms and standards, establishing ethical and evidence-based health approaches, providing technical support for underdeveloped and developing countries, and monitoring health matters all over the world (<http://www.who.int/about/what-we-do/en/>).

The researcher had worked in an IO (NATO) in 2010, hence it was assumed that epistemologically, there was a link between him and the inquiry. What is more, this previous experience brought added subjectivity to the research process.

In addition, it is implicit that grand theories – motivation, culture and leadership – influenced the understanding of the research topic. Thereby, research meso-theories were chosen from these models. Also, this assumption is well reflected in the literature review chapter. At first, these grand theories were investigated in the *theoretical literature review section*, and then specifically, their reflections vis-à-vis the research topic were scrutinized in the following section of the literature-review chapter.

1.6 Structure of the Study

This study is organised into twelve chapters:

Chapter One introduces the research topic, objectives, importance of the study, and the research questions. It also defines the main terms related to the research, and then explains its scope, limitations, and structure.

Chapter Two investigates the existing literature in two main sections. The first section scrutinizes the theoretical literature in the background of the three grand theories: motivation, leadership, and culture. The second section discusses reflections of these grand theories on practice and philosophical conception of IOs through reviewing the research topic literature.

Chapter Three focuses on meso-theories by providing more information on them, explaining why they are chosen, and how they connect grand theories. Afterwards, it clarifies the relation between researcher interpretation, collation, and theory, with practice.

Chapter Four spells out how the research process is established and guided. It also explains the relationship between the philosophical perspective, ontological and epistemological positions, and the chosen paradigms of inquiry. After investigating different methodological approaches, the methodology of research is presented in the last section of this chapter.

Chapter Five initially describes subject areas of the research, then explains a number of different data collection methods. It also discusses best-fit methods for investigation and participant selection processes. Then, it establishes the awareness of the researcher regarding rigour and ethical considerations, and how they are vital in the research. Lastly, it explains how coding is designed and implemented to understand the data.

Chapter Six, Seven, Eight and Nine discuss, define and analyse the findings for each organization separately. They analyse and interpret data from semi-structured interviews, focus groups, and observations, through ethnographic content analysis. Chapter Ten makes a comparison of four IOs. These chapters form the bulk of the research. Chapter Eleven develops a theoretical framework for a better understanding of the impact of culture, leadership, and power, on staff motivation in the context of IOs. Then, it provides practical recommendations for each IOs.

The final chapter begins with an overall conclusion of the study. Subsequently, it highlights the main contributions of the research and its limitations. In addition, the researcher illustrates how the whole enquiry was written from beginning to end, like a diary, and how it has instructed him as well. Finally, the research is wrapped up with specific recommendations for future studies.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Social Science is an important concept for defining different aspects of human society (Dahrendorf, 1985). It investigates ideas and activities, which are difficult to observe or interpret. Theory and practice are two sides of the same coin in social science (Kant, 1995). Accurate theoretical perspective provides good practice through analysing knowledge, or truth, which is derived from reality or practical/empirical situations and contexts (Howell, 2013). Theory identifies general frameworks and determines rules, but it does not show how to implement, which is why practical judgment is necessary (Rachels, 2001). Theory and practice interrelate and complete each other in this study. To this effect, the literature review chapter is divided into two main segments, namely, *Theoretical Literature Review*, and, *Research Topic Literature Review*, sections.

2.2 Theoretical Literature Review

In order to understand the roots of staff motivation in the context of IOs, we shall look at grand theories which are divided into three categories: motivation, leadership and culture. These grand theories share mutual and continuing interactions during the process of staff's motivation.

2.2.1 Motivation Theories

The concept of work motivation does not date back too far in history. Humans, as a whole, emerged as active actors in a work environment only in the middle of the 18th Century post-industrial revolution, but as a consequence of mechanization their importance was postponed. For a long time, humans were wedged between capital and machines, as regarded their work environment. Smith (1776) holds a rather important position in the progress of the industrial revolution and capitalism. His book, *The Wealth of Nations*, was accepted as the starting point for classical liberalism (Kucukaksoy, 2011) and *laissez faire et laissez passer* economic philosophies². He criticized mercantilism³

² "Laissez faire et laissez passer" means "let them do and let them pass". This term was first used by Physiocrats, a group of French economists, in the 18th Century. They promoted non-intervention of the state in economic relations (Bannock et al., 1998).

and emphasized power of the free market vis-à-vis trade and liberty of labour in the economy. On the other hand, he assumed workers as no more than automatons: if their salaries were paid, a proper division of labour was managed, and dexterity of the workingman enhanced, they would perform efficiently. In general, notable British economists, such as, Ricardo (1817), Marshal (1890), and Keynes (1939), shared Smith's assumptions (Perelman, 2010). On the contrary, Bentham (1789) developed a utilitarian approach akin to ancient hedonism. According to him, people have a tendency to escape pain and seek pleasure, therefore, the presence of pleasure and the absence of pain would satisfy humans. Mill (1859 and 1868) pursued and modified Bentham's utilitarianism concept through the notion of liberty and keeping low and high pleasure distinctions (Crisp, 2006). For individuals not to bring harm to others, they must have absolute freedom in their thoughts and acts. Furthermore, he defined basic pleasures such as hunger, thirst and sex, as base human needs held in common with animals. Higher pleasures, such as art and philosophy, stemmed from the human mind, being unique to human beings (Weijers, 2012). However, both Bentham and Mill's satisfaction-based understanding does not seem applicable to the work environment, especially during the periods of industrial revolution when concentration is placed on increasing productivity.

In the 19th Century, while searching for ways to increase productivity of factories, most solutions were assumed to lie in the logic of capitalism. For example, in order to motivate workers, Babbage (1835) – known for originating the concept of programmable computers – offered a bonus system that was based on profit-sharing with those employees who contributed to increase in productivity (Fitzroy and Kraft, 1987; Mitchell et al., 1990; Witzel, 2003). Moreover, Babbage supported division of labour, but unlike Smith, he posited a system that was a combination of skilled and unskilled employees with wages paid according to their skill level: While a lower wage was paid to an unskilled labourer, a higher wage was paid to skilled ones (Miura, 2005a). Babbage's mechanical engineering background may have affected his understanding of the workplace, witnessed in his ignoring the social aspects of human relations, as if people were computer components. He divided workers into two groups: skilled, and not. Owen (1849), as a prominent Welsh social-reformer, holds an important place in the history of work-motivation through realizing the importance of individual performance in advancing

³ Mercantilism was the main economic philosophy of the 16th and 17th Century that was based on the domination of state control over trade and trade policy (Pearce, 1992).

productivity (Hatcher, 2013). In order to increase productivity at work, he ameliorated working conditions in his factory through eliminating pauper apprentice labour (Gordon, 1994), limiting working hours to eight-hours a day, providing food assistance, establishing swing rooms, and paying higher wages (Topaloğlu and Koç, 2010). Owen's views on motivation were humanistic and futuristic. He differed from his contemporary colleagues, and in the struggle between capital and labour, he sided with labour-power and endeavoured to improve working conditions.

Likewise, Marx (1988) issued a radical criticism of the capitalist system: he considered that the solutions found in the capitalist system could not provide any permanent relief for workers. For example, when workers' wages are raised, they will desire to earn more money, but in return they begin to work more intensively and lose all their freedoms in the process. As a result of this need and greed, they will shorten their lives. Marx (1988) posits that the intrinsic nature of humans does not concurrently allow for work and economic gain. To this effect, in lieu of feeling motivated in the work environment, the workers feel alienated. Marx defines four aspects of alienation as: a. *"the product of labour"*, becomes an alien object for the workman and turns him into a slave while taking power over him; b. *"act of production"*, is an alien activity which does not belong to the worker. After some time, his own acts exploit all his energies and personal life; c. *"the species-being"* (Gattungswesen), is derived from Ludwig Feuerbach's philosophy where it is applied to man and mankind as a whole (Ibid: 78). When the worker becomes an alien to his species, he becomes an alien in his individual existence as well (Ibid); and, d. *"fellow members of society"*, is when the workman is alienated from himself, and as a consequence of this, he will be alienated from other men as well (Petrovic, 1963). As Musto (2010: 82) refers, *"Marx's alienation is a particular phenomenon within a precise form of economy: that is, wage labour and transformation of labour products into objects standing opposed to producers"*. Marx's solution is to not be part of the capitalist system, which is akin to "true or false" (1 or 0) Boolean logic⁴. For those who work in the capitalist system, due to the nature of capitalism, they will always feel alienated, which in turn makes them unmotivated. When we think of the economic order and the reality of this world, most people would not have opportunities to be part of an anti-capitalist system. Hence, Marx's criticism can be helpful in increasing awareness

⁴ The English mathematician George Boole developed a system of logical thought in which all values are either True (1) or False (0).

for workers regarding the world economic system. Yet, it is certain that this awareness shall not raise their motivation levels.

After emerging from the United Kingdom (UK), capitalist driven industrialization began to take over the economies of the United States (US) and Europe in the 19th Century. Yet out of the destruction brought on by the First World War, the UK and Europe witnessed a period of industrial stagnation. On the other hand, after the American Civil War (1861-1865), the US maintained the Union of States, abolished slavery, and whilst managing to stay out of the First World War until 1917, enabled itself to concentrate all its energies and resources to developing economic and human capital to expand its infrastructure of industrialization. With the accelerative effects of rapid mechanization and a well implemented capitalist system, the US became an important economic power in the world. In addition to economic domination of US companies over the global economy, American originated research and theories – Taylor (1903); Gantt (1910); The Gilbreths (1917); Ford (1924); Mayo (1933); Maslow (1943 and 1987); McGregor (1960); Vroom (1964); Herzberg (1968); Alderfer (1972); and McClelland (1985a-b) – dominated and shaped the progress of work motivation in the literature.

Even though its origin was not a motivational research, Taylor's work holds an important place in the existing literature. As an American mechanical engineer, he investigated ways of increasing efficiency at work. Like Owen, he focused on increasing the individual's work performance and developed a basic understanding: if an employer provided maximum prosperity for each employee, the employees' maximum prosperity would lead to maximum efficiencies by those employees, thus in the process maximum prosperity of the employer would be ensured as well. He posited that, "*slow working*" and "*soldiering*" hindered maximum prosperity and efficiency of working people in England and America. Therefore, he offered scientific management principles to eliminate "*slow working*" and "*soldiering*": a. A scientific way must be developed for each element of an individual's work; b. Each individual must be selected, trained, taught, and developed in a scientific way by managers; c. According to scientific principles, managers must thoroughly cooperate with individuals; and d. An intimate, friendly, and cooperative environment must be established between management and the individuals (Taylor, 1911). Nevertheless, it must be pointed out that Taylor placed too much importance on "efficiency", hence, his scientific principles made a big impact on the existing literature of the period and were implemented by numerous factories. Even though he modified his

colleagues' view of viewing workingmen as machines, through the principles of providing high wages and more comfortable working conditions for labour, yet he continued this same approach. Likewise, he tried to standardize work conditions and desired to set in place a more controlled system in all steps of the production process (Kakar, 1970). In order to ensure this objective, he developed the term, *functional foremanship*, and assigned a great deal of power to a functional foreman in the factory. Even if basic and at the level of supervision, functional foremanship holds an important place in the literature by marking the role of leadership in motivation theories. Nevertheless, due to his excessive concern for individual efficiency, he never managed to develop a holistic approach that could also cover group performance.

Taylor's colleague, Gantt (1910), mainly pursued the former's scientific management principles, with the difference of developing a bonus system which required finishing tasks earlier than planned (Wallin, 1912; Pindur et al., 1995). He did not only desire bonuses for workers, but also for functional foreman whose workforce fulfilled standards earlier than expected. In order to track worker performance, he devised the "Gantt Chart", which can demonstrate the relationship between the extents of completed and planned tasks through the use of time scale and horizontal bars. Gantt also realized the importance of the leadership factor in motivation and tried to consolidate the leader's role in an organization. However, he assumed that if individuals are motivated, their motivation would automatically reflect on group performance. Then again, two plus two does not always equal four in social sciences. Group motivation has its own dynamics and norms, therefore, it must be investigated separately from individual motivation.

After Taylor's death in 1915, Frank and Lillian Gilbreth (1917) followed through with the principle that he had established (Savino, 2009). Like Gantt, they focused on completing tasks earlier than expected, but with a distinct differentiation. Gantt tried to shorten task performance time by directing people's development. The Gilbreths chose to reduce unnecessary activities at work (Price, 1987), and developed seventeen basic ones, referred to as "therbligs⁵", which could be applied to all manners of labour. In addition, in order to increase worker efficiency, they posited that through using financial incentives, improvement of working conditions (such as lighting, ventilation and seating), installation of suggestion boxes, provision of hourly rest periods (Graham, 2000), and

⁵ The Gilbreths spelled their name backward.

utilization of the three positions of promotion plan⁶ (Gilbreth and Gilbreth, 1916), this goal could be achieved. Both Gantt's and the Gilbreth's efforts, inserted humanistic aspects into Taylor's principles.

Taylor's principles were also taken into consideration by Ford (1924) in his undertakings. Above and beyond those principles, Ford transformed organizational work into a mass-production system (Nevins, 1954; Palloix, 1976; Lisciandra, 2008; Zuffo, 2011), lowered daily work-time to eight hours, offered a share of the profits of his company to every employee (Miura, 2005b), and implemented the five-dollar wage policy per day. He gave high wages to his qualified workers (Wilson, 1995) and encouraged them to buy his automobiles. Yet, in essence, he did not aim to motivate them; his ultimate concern was increasing the demand for his products, and the productivity of his workers (Dassbach, 1991). *Fordism* did not only make Ford rich, it also made an accelerative impact on industrialization. However, this acceleration did not correspond to the progress of workers' motivation or ensure more motivated workers, but instead it channelled them even more into the capitalist world order.

The efforts to increase employee productivity had an unexpected effect with the Hawthorne Study. In order to explore the effects of illumination on workforce productivity, Western Electric Company carried out some experiments in its Hawthorne Plant (Illinois-USA) between 1927 and 1932. During these experiments, it was observed that regardless of the changes in illumination (constant or increased), productivity of workers always increased. Even when illumination was decreased, productivity increased nonetheless (Mayo, 1933). In order to understand the reasons behind this surprising result, Elton Mayo, Fritz Roethlisberger, and William J., conducted a number of interviews with the various subjects of the study. Mayo and his colleagues realized that when subjects were being observed by scientists at their workplace, their acknowledged presence, on its own, caused increases in performance. This situation has since been referred to as the "Hawthorne Effect", in the literature. Before its publication, financial incentives (Murrell 1976) and improving working conditions were deemed enough

⁶ The Gilbreths (1916: 290) explained the three positions of promotion plan as follows:

".....They consider each man as occupying three positions in the organization, and consider these three positions as constantly changing in an upward spiral, as the man is promoted from the lowest position that he occupies and into the position next higher than the highest position that he occupies. The three positions are as follows: first, and lowest, the position that the man has last occupied in the organization; second, the position that the man is occupying at present in the organization, third, and highest, the position that the man will next occupy".

incentive to raise productivity of employees. However, this research, contrary to existing beliefs of the time, demonstrated that human relations could directly and positively affect productivity of employees. Based on the findings of the Hawthorn Study, Mayo developed *Human Relations Theory*. Through it, he highlighted the importance of needs, such as, achievement, recognition, and companionship, for employees in their work environment (Overvold, 1987), and posited that managers could increase productivity through creating an atmosphere attuned with good human relations. Though Hawthorne Studies did not search for motivational results per se, they did turn out to become a milestone in the motivational research literature by recognising humans as a separate entity, rather than part of the mechanism of the economic system.

Human needs became a very popular issue in the development of social science after the 1940s. Thereafter, Maslow's *Needs Theory*, as one of the most referenced researches in the social science literature, gained importance. Many academics accepted this theory as a starting point (McGregor, 1960; Porter, 1961; Blai, 1962; Vroom, 1964; Argyris, 1964; Beer, 1966; Hall and Nougaim, 1968; Goodman, 1968; Alderfer, 1969; Huizinga, 1970; McClelland, 1985; and, Deci and Ryan, 1985) and developed their own models based on the framework of Maslow's theory (Wahba and Bridwell, 1976; and, Latham and Ernst, 2006). Yet as Maslow did not support his theory with sufficient empirical findings (Heylighen, 1992; Graham and Messner, 1998; and, Albert et al., 2005), a number of other academics conducted research to test and challenge it under different contexts (Hall and Nougaim, 1968; Huizinka, 1970; Trexler and Schub, 1971; Schwartz and Gains, 1974; Lollar, 1974; Adler, 1977; Goebel and Brown, 1981; Sirgy, 1986; Davies, 1991; Hagerty, 1999; Gambrel and Cianci, 2003; O'Connor and Yballe, 2007; Kenrick et al, 2010; Wu, 2013; Grogan, 2013; and, Jerome, 2013), and thus they contributed to testing the experimental part of the theory.

Maslow's work (1943) on this subject indicated that there was an intrinsic hierarchy in basic needs of human beings, and after a lower need is fairly satisfied, higher needs could emerge. Thereby he developed a five-step hierarchy of needs: a. Physiological (fundamental survival requirements, such as, hunger, sex and thirst); b. Safety (security, stability, protection, and freedom from fear); c. Love (sense of belonging, and affection); d. Esteem (self-confidence, deserved respect from others, recognition, and achievement); and, e. Self-actualization (self-realization and identity, or actualization of one's own potential) needs (Maslow, 1943; 1987; 2011). Maslow posited

that these needs were universal and could be applied to all people in spite of their cultural differences. On the other hand, seeing all human beings as homogenous garnered much criticism from some corners (Hofstede, 1980; Goebel and Brown, 1981; Graham and Messner, 1998; Oishi et al., 1999; Gambrel and Cianci, 2003; Griffin, 2011; and Kaur, 2013) and also from some feminist perspectives (Chodorow, 1978; Gilligan, 1982; Keller, 1996) which emphasized that women had a different understanding of interpersonal relationships than their male counterparts (Hanley and Abel, 2002). In addition, occidental liberals criticized utilizing the need-based approach at the bottom of the hierarchy of needs and therefore did not aim to encourage the consumption of luxury goods (Trigg, 2004). In reaction, and taking into consideration these criticisms, Maslow added three more needs to be considered under his theory: cognitive (beyond esteem needs: desire to know and explore (Maslow, 1971, 1987 and 2011)); aesthetic (after cognitive needs: symmetry, beauty, and order (Maslow, 1987)); and, transcendence (beyond self-actualization: to help others actualize their potentials (Maslow, 1971, 1987)). All the same, he did not embed these new needs into his theory as new motivational steps. In so doing, there is no consensus amongst academics regarding the acceptance of this extended version of Maslow's theory. Therefore, the classic five-step version is more commonly employed in academic research (Koltko-Rivera, 2006). Even though Maslow placed much emphasis on satisfying the needs of human nature, he regarded them as a mathematical formula: a higher need cannot be fulfilled without satisfying prior needs first, and thus, two different needs cannot be completely satisfied concurrently. Furthermore, due to viewing motivation as an inner need of an individual, the impact of culture and leadership on motivation are neglected by him.

In order to reduce the weight of the rigid structure of Maslow's theory, Alderfer (1969, 1972) developed ERG theory as an alternative (Wahba and Bridwell, 1976; Wanaous and Zwany, 1977; McShane and Von Glinow, 2005; and, O'Connor and Yballe, 2007). Alderfer's theory (ERG) is based on three fundamental human needs: a. **Existence** (all types of material and physiological desires, such as, hunger, thirst, pay, fringe, and, physical working conditions); b. **Relatedness** (the desire for social interactions); and, c. **Growth** (the desire for being creative and more productive for the self and one's environment). Existence need is very similar to Maslow's psychological and safety needs. Relatedness is reminiscent of Maslow's love and esteem needs. Growth is very close to the self-actualization need of Maslow. However, unlike Maslow's theory, firstly, although these needs' gratification influence each other, there is no need

for a strict hierarchical sequence (i.e. a higher need can emerge without satisfying lower ones). Secondly, ERG theory relates higher need frustration to the level of lower-order need. Finally, various categories result in different predictions by themselves (Alderfer, 1969). Like Maslow, Alderfer ignores individual differences and the changing nature of individual needs. Even so, ERG Theory can be applied to increase an individual's job performance. Still, it is rather inefficient as regards group or organizational motivation.

Another need-originated content motivation theory belongs to Herzberg (1959). Unlike Maslow, Alderfer, and McClelland, Herzberg divided his need-bases into two main components: hygiene and motivation. Hygiene factors, such as, company policy and administration, supervision, work conditions, salary, interpersonal relations, job security, and status, do not necessarily lead to satisfaction on the job when they are present, but their absence may cause dissatisfaction. On the other hand, motivation factors, such as, achievement, recognition, work (itself), responsibility, advancement, and growth, may lead to happiness and motivation of people on the job (Herzberg, 1959, 1968 and 1987). A major flaw in this theory is the assumption that all people are alike and all working environments are the same (Nadler and Lawler, 1979; Graham and Messner, 1998; Hanson, 2002; and, Jones and Lloyd, 2005). The findings of Herzberg could be reliable only if critical incident technique is applied (Vroom, 1964; and, Latham, 2012). Vroom criticizes Herzberg's system due to its reliance on the subject's perspective: People's responses may be rather defensive and their satisfaction may stem from their own achievements and accomplishments on the job (Vroom, 1964). In addition, Vroom does not agree with Herzberg, vis-à-vis the presence of hygiene factors providing no motivation, and puts these external elements in his expectancy motivation theory (Rutledge, 2008). Even though it was not explicitly declared by Herzberg, hygiene factors are mostly related to organizational culture. Therefore, for the first time, a study laid implicit emphasis on organizational culture's importance for work motivation.

McClelland has also developed a motivation theory based on human needs (1961, 1987a-b), but unlike Maslow and Alderfer, he did not advance it based on a hierarchical order. His main focus was on motivational potency of clearly defined needs, such as, achievement, affiliation and power (Steers et al., 2004). The need of *achievement* was the desire to be in charge of a part of the solutions – rather than being associated as a part of the problems – to deal with complex issues, to set objectives, and to receive feedback on success levels. The *affiliation* need was the will to be a part of the

team, a concern to develop interpersonal relationships, and a requisite to reduce uncertainty. Finally, the *power* need was a drive to control and influence others: a need to convince and show authority over them (McClelland, 1985a). McClelland's theory is a good example of demonstrating how power employs reflexively with motivation. Moreover, he realized the importance of cultural differences amongst workers and the inevitable effect of leadership on work motivation.

Until the 1960s, motivation theories were based on content. Maslow, Alderfer, Herzberg, and McClelland, as leading content theorists, did not focus directly on motivation. They tried to identify what the individual's needs were, and create an environment that led to intrinsic satisfaction (Latham, 2012). According to these theories, motivation stems from human needs, which if found and satisfied, would in turn automatically create motivation at work. After a lull, from the commencement of the Second World War to the post-war period, the American and European economies gained an upward momentum by the 1960s, and parallel to this development, the business environment began to grow and gain a more complex shape. In this period, it was realised that content theories could not explain whole motivation processes at the workplace. Therefore, another group of researchers accepted *needs* as the only part of the whole motivation process. They attempted to understand how an individual was motivated (Turner, 1987), and how causal relationships across time and events were related to work motivation (Steers et al., 2004).

One of the earliest examples of process motivation theory, namely, "Equity Theory", was developed by J.S. Adams in 1963. Like Herzberg, Adams scrutinized "*dissatisfaction at work*", but different from him, he followed a dynamic and socially comparative process. According to Adams (1965), people's motivation at work was affected by their perception of equity versus inequity. They made comparisons between their own performance and its outcome vis-à-vis others' performances and outcomes. If they perceived inequity in this comparison, they would feel dissatisfied and would attempt to provide balance, either by working harder, or working less. One significant flaw of this model is "ignoring individual differences" (Griffeth et al., 1989; and, Donovan, 2001), for which it should not be uniformly utilized for all cultures or in all contexts. In order to eliminate this flaw, and as an alternative to equity theory, Leventhal (1976) offered utilizing *fairness perception* based on justice rules in social systems. He defined *justice rule* as "*an individual's belief that a distribution of outcomes, or procedure for distributing*

outcomes, is fair and appropriate when it has satisfied certain criteria” (Ibid: 4). Fairness must be consistent, and be free from bias, in any kind of organizational decisions (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Manolchev and Lewis, 2014; Chenot et al., 2014). IOs aim to overcome inequality and establish social equality in the social order. This object also makes a reflexion inside their own organizations. In spite of individual and national differences, when staff feel they are treated fairly, they would be more motivated at work. Hence, the fairness approach seems to be applicable in the context of IOs.

Like fairness theory, expectancy theory is also based on an individual's beliefs and perceptions (Latham, 2012). Expectancy theory, as a cognitive process motivation model was developed by Vroom in 1964. He tried to explain motivation process with a basic formula: *Motivation = Expectancy x Instrumentality x Valence*. Herein, expectancy indicated the level of an individual's belief when a given effort had to lead to an achieved task. Expectancy ranged from zero to one. If an individual believed the impossibility of a given effort would conclude a desired achievement, the expectancy would be zero. To the contrary, if there was a full certainty, it would be one. Instrumentality indicated the degree of an individual's belief that achieved task would lead to possible outcomes. Like expectancy, instrumentality ranged from zero to one. Valence indicated the value of an individual's preferences for possible outcomes. It ranged from -1 to + 1. If an outcome was not desirable to an individual, the valence would be -1, if an individual was indifferent to the outcome, it would be zero, and if the outcome was very desirable, it would be +1. When these three factors became high and positive, the result would be close to 1, which would mean that the level of motivation would be high. On the other hand, if these three factors were close to zero or negative, motivation would be rather low. Porter and Lawler (1968) expanded expectancy theory through realizing the importance of the individual's own abilities and skills, making more clear the link between work effort and achieved task, and adding a feedback loop in order to recognize an individual's learning process about past relationships (Steers et al., 2004). Most of the IOs have static work environments and deal with dull bureaucracies. To this effect, it seems quite difficult to apply this theory to established authorities, such as IOs.

In order to drive an individual at work, Locke (1996) suggested to managers the impact of goal settings. Firstly, a goal should be rather specific or explicit, and if at all possible, there should be a certain time limit. Secondly, the goal should be challenging

but reachable. For the reason that, when the goal was difficult but not impossible, the employees showed better performance, but on the other hand, when the goal was unreachable, the employees would show low motivation to pursue that goal. If these two elements are provided, it would be inevitable to reach the highest performance levels at work. However, as Latham and Locke (1979) point out, this goal-setting theory is only a motivational technique that could lead to mobilization of staff. Even though it is a complimentary technique that could be combined with other motivational tools, in order to dispel a monotone work atmosphere at IOs, it could be useful.

In this context, while Bandura was developing his “social cognitive theory”, he utilized goal establishment as one of the main processes that provides self-regulation of behaviour (Bandura, 1986 and 1999). During the goal establishment process, individuals developed goals that represent desired behavioural states. After a self-observed process, individuals made a self-evaluation of their current behaviour, and their behavioural goals. According to the results of this evaluation, a self-reaction process was commenced if an individual’s performance met or exceeded their goal. They would feel satisfied and their self-efficacy would increase, otherwise, dissatisfaction among individuals and a decrease in self-efficacy would emerge (Donovan, 2001). Bandura collated and modified the essence of goal setting and expectancy theories by placing great importance on individual cognition and environmental impact vis-à-vis the process of motivation. Most of the IO staff have impressive academic and work backgrounds. Therefore, Bandura’s updated version of *social cognitive theory* could correspond to their motivational expectancies.

The importance of pursuing self-evaluation during a motivation process was also emphasized by Pyszczynski et al. (2004), with *Terror Management Theory*. According to them, people’s awareness of mortality could cause high anxiety which could leave them more unmotivated. Conversely, positive self-evaluations raised self-esteem, and when people felt self-confident, it was observed that their anxiety reduced and thus their motivation levels increased. To this effect, in lieu of using hard power tools, such as threatening or openly critiquing staff, they encourage utilization of soft power motivational tools.

Until the 1980s, there had been a strict separation between *content* and *process* theories in motivational research. After the 1980s, *integrative* or *mixed* motivational theories began to gain popularity in the literature. Deci and Ryan (1985) investigated

intrinsic⁷ and extrinsic sources⁸ of motivation, and constructed *Self-Determination Theory* (SDT), which was composed of six sub-theories: Cognitive Evaluation Theory⁹, Organismic Integration Theory¹⁰, Causality Orientations Theory¹¹, Basic Psychological Needs Theory¹², Goal Contents Theory¹³, and Relationships Motivation Theory¹⁴.

SDT stated that support for autonomy, non-controlling positive feedback, and acknowledging the other's perspective, increased intrinsic motivation at work (Deci et al., 1989). On the other hand, extrinsic incentives, such as monetary rewards, reduced intrinsic motivation. Deci and Ryan's assertions, as regarded the effects of extrinsic incentives, received some criticism (Locke and Latham, 1990; and, Eisenberg and Cameron, 1996). In line with these criticisms, Deci, Ryan, and Kostner (1999) investigated the foundation of their postulations through a meta-analysis of (128) studies (Latham, 2012) which came to the conclusion that, "*using extrinsic reward strategies run a serious risk of diminishing rather than promoting intrinsic motivation*" (Deci, Ryan, and Kostner 1999: 659). SDT seems applicable to IOs where autonomy has been valued by officials and supervisors as a human resource policy.

Another integrative motivation theory is that of Steel and Konig (2006). They developed *Temporal Motivation Theory* (TMT) through adoption of the most accepted elements of pico-economics¹⁵ (Ainslie, 1992), expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964),

⁷ Ryan and Deci (2000a: 55) defined intrinsic motivation as, "*doing something because it is inherently interesting and enjoyable*".

⁸ Extrinsic motivation implies, "*doing something because it leads to a separable outcome*" (Ibid).

⁹ Cognitive Evaluation Theory explains the effects of social environment on intrinsic motivation (Ryan and Deci, 2000b).

¹⁰ Organismic Integration Theory defines extrinsic motivation and contextual factors' different forms (Ibid).

¹¹ In order to provide for people's orientation to the environment and regulation of their different behaviours, Causality Orientations Theory explains people's individual differences (Deci and Ryan, 2008).

¹² Basic Psychological Needs Theory focuses on three main needs, as, *autonomy* (people's own choices and decisions enhance intrinsic motivation), *competence* (social contextual events, such as, positive performance feedback, increases people's intrinsic motivation), and, *relatedness* (when people feel connected to others, their intrinsic motivation will increase) (Ryan and Deci, 2000b).

¹³ Goal Contents Theory makes a distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic goals (Vansteenkiste et al., 2006).

¹⁴ Relationships Motivation Theory posits that the highest quality personal relationships support autonomy, competence, and relatedness (www.selfdeterminationtheory.org/theory/ accessed 25 December 2014).

¹⁵ "Picoeconomics explores temporal discounting of the value of future rewards with a basic equation.

Utility: $(\text{Rate} \times \text{Amount}) / \text{Delay}$. Hereby, utility shows the value of preferences. Rate indicates the expectancy of action's accessibility to the reward, with a value ranging between 0 to 100 percent (most certain). Amount is the amount of reward that is received on payout, and delay signifies how long on average is waited to receive the pay-out" (Steel and Konig, 2006: 892).

cumulative prospect theory¹⁶ (Tversky and Kahneman, 1992), and need theory¹⁷ (Dollard and Miller, 1950). TMT attempted to understand human behaviour while investigating the effects of expectancy, value, time, and differences between rewards and losses. Steel and Konig placed much importance on time-concept. They posited that individuals became more motivated when the deadline of a task approached, and that long term goals did not have any motivating effects. This assumption can be applicable to workers in underdeveloped or developing countries, but not to professionals at IOs, because individual differences and cultural backgrounds could shape individual preferences. While someone may be naturally more short-term oriented, others may be long-term oriented as a matter of background.

There has been much academic research conducted on “motivation”, in the past. Although these analyses have left their marks upon history of motivation, yet they have defined the issue mostly by not placing enough importance on cultural factors. Parallel to the development of globalization, nowadays, it is very common to find foreign labourers working in most countries. These foreign workers almost always tend to bring their own culture to their adopted work environment. Thereby, the question of “how culture affects motivation” gains more importance. Consequently, future motivation studies should look at cross-cultural perspectives based on integrative theories in other fields such as leadership and culture.

¹⁶ Cumulative prospect theory is a decision making model for risky situations. It is composed of three main parts: first is value function over monetary gains; second is a loss of risk aversion function; and the final part is a weighing function which is utilized for transforming probability distributions (Neilson and Stowe, 2002).

¹⁷ Dollard and Miller’s need theory converges the effects of reinforcement’s gradient and stimulus generalization while investigating individuals’ behaviours (Steel and Konig, 2006).

2.2.2 Leadership Theories

The concept of leadership has been an ongoing topic of discussion since time immemorial. For the longest time, the progress of leadership moved with the axis of military command. One of the earliest records regarding military leadership dates back to Sun Tzu (400-320 BC). According to him, wisdom, sincerity, benevolence, courage, and strictness, are the common characteristics of good leaders. On the other hand, good leaders should not be reckless, cowardly, quick tempered, sensitive (as regards honour), and overly compassionate (Chen, 1994). His ancient philosophy on leadership has carried far beyond his time and space and reached our world today. Being able to utilize soft power gains importance in his leadership understanding. The most important component of gaining soft power is having and using knowledge effectively. He sees applying hard power as weakness: a real leader wins the battle even before departing for the battlefield.

Some ancient Greek philosophers evaluated leadership from the perspective of wisdom and virtue. Socrates, as a retired soldier, criticized the idea of following a leader, and suggested his disciples pursue wisdom and virtue¹⁸, and not any individuals (Plato, 2008). Plato like Socrates emphasized the importance of virtue and wisdom in leadership. According to Plato (2013: 379):

“As before, rulers must be constant and valiant, good-looking, and of noble manners, but now they must also have natural ability which education will improve; that is to say, they must be quick at learning, capable of mental toil, retentive, solid, diligent natures, who combine intellectual with moral virtues; not lame and one-sided, diligent in bodily exercise and indolent in mind, or conversely; not a maimed soul, which hates falsehood and yet unintentionally is always wallowing in the mire of ignorance; not a bastard or feeble person, but sound in wind and limb, and in perfect condition for the great gymnastic trial of the mind.”

Furthermore, he posited that an ideal state should have four main virtues at its core: prudence, courage, temperance, and justice (Takala, 1998). Also, the ruler of a state, who must have natural charisma (Williamson, 2008), should seek knowledge in good, truth¹⁹, and wisdom (Popper, 2011). Therefore, philosophers should be kings and

¹⁸ According to Socrates, virtue is knowledge of what is good and bad that can be taught (Plato, 2013).

¹⁹ Plato, with the effect of Socrates' ideas, defined the form of truth encompassing two different worlds: eternal and material ones. In the material world, truth can be seen with senses, but in the eternal world, the

kings should be philosophers (Plato, 2013: xvii). Although Socrates and Plato define leadership differently than Sun Tzu, where they intersect concerns knowledge. They all see “knowledge” as an inseparable measure of leadership.

Aristotle, as the tutor of Alexander the Great, focused on the ethical measures of leadership, and inferred that truth²⁰ in practical matters can be seen from deeds, while life and knowledge are experiential and not propositional (Chappell, 2012). People’s deeds and choices aim at the knowledge of good, and a good person always does good things²¹, to which effect a leader should be a good person (Aristotle, 2000). In addition, Aristotle (2000: 95) stated that leaders must have practical wisdom, which is, “*a reasoned and true state of capacity to act with regard to human goods*”. Thanks to practical wisdom, leaders could decide “*what is good for them and their men in general*” (Ibid).

The idea of being a good person as a leader was challenged by Machiavelli (1469-1527). Machiavelli investigated the moral aspects of leadership; as Howell and Letza (2000) have underscored, Machiavelli utilized the Italian word “*virtù*”, which has a rather different meaning from its conventional English usage. Whilst conventional *virtue* aims to be morally good, Machiavellian *virtù* aims to provide for the good of the state (Parel, 1992). Machiavelli (2008) inferred that leaders should learn not to be good, *per se*, but rather learn utilizing how to use goodness according to each situation. Nonetheless, while doing this, they should not be odious and louse either. He evaluated human nature as being ungrateful, unstable, selfish, insincere, and cowardly, thereby recommending that leaders should prefer to be feared rather than loved, yet concurrently take care not to become hated either. Therefore, a leader must learn how to act akin to a combination of the fox and the lion: as the fox cannot protect himself from wolves and a lion is defenceless against traps, so a leader must be a fox to recognize traps and a lion to scare away wolves.

The Machiavellian leadership view is not based on moral values, as power is placed in the centre of this concept (Galie and Bopst, 2006). In order to acquire and maintain power over others, Machiavelli does not make any objections to manipulating

ability of reason helps one to see truth which is superior to the senses. The object of knowledge is what exists, and its function to know about reality and truth can be seen as abstract while it is more obvious in the eternal world than in the material one (Plato, 2013).

²⁰ Aristotle rejected Plato’s form of truth and combined relativism with objectivity (Lloyd, 2011).

²¹ Aristotle divided “good things” into three categories: external good, good of soul, and good of body. Good of soul is mostly called as good, and human virtue means soul, not body.

the truth (Grams and Rogers, 1990; Wilson et al., 1996; Brown and Trevino, 2006; Kessler et al., 2010; and, Hartog and Belschak, 2012) or becoming ruthless (Harris, 2001; Swain, 2002; Zettler and Solga, 2013; and, Berlin, 2013). Even though Machiavellian understanding may not be applicable in today's business world, he does provide a realistic picture of what makes a leader. In reality, instead of developing a comprehensive leadership theory, he provides various strategies to the leader of his era, *The Prince*, on how to become more powerful under the complex political conditions in his contemporary context. Not only does he advocate for leaders to use hard power, such as ruling with an iron fist, but he recommends benefiting from soft power as well, such as the use of manipulation, which is reminiscent of Lukes' (2005) third dimension of power. The Machiavellian leadership understanding is based on the assumption of superiority of those in power and requires a strict hierarchical distance between the leader and followers. Furthermore, there is no concern about cultural diversity or individual differences of the followers as he views them all to be the same and governable by one leader.

Foucault (1980) criticized ascribing power as a feature of leadership. He viewed power as a form of domination and took on an inter-subjective understanding of it through evaluating perspectives of both institutions and individuals. While institutions effect power over individuals (Howell, 2012), individuals also yield power through the impact of their social networks. Therefore, linkage of power with knowledge gains importance in this understanding. Existence of power is dependent on the production of knowledge:

“Knowledge linked to power, not only assumes the authority of 'the truth' but has the power to make it-self true. All knowledge, once applied in the real world, has effects, and in that sense at least, 'becomes true.' Knowledge, once used to regulate the conduct of others, entails constraint, regulation and the disciplining of practice. Thus, there is no power relation without the correlative constitution of a field of knowledge, nor any knowledge that does not presuppose and constitute at the same time, power relations (Foucault, 1977:27)”

Foucault (1980) infers that power evolves from a hard form, such as physical violence or material constraints, into a soft form, such as exercising subtle coercion through a surveillance system²². Hereby, observation with the factor of consistently obtaining and maintaining knowledge, especially over followers, makes power more effective. On the other hand, even though Lukes (2005) agrees with Foucault's criticism of the Machiavellian *power archetype*, and reflects this by presenting power as domination, he also criticizes Foucault's power perception as being too general and abstract. Therefore, he narrows Foucault's *power definition* and develops his own three dimensions of power. The first dimension lies in the decision-making process, especially when there is an obvious conflict of subjective interest. The second dimension appears as controlling the agenda in both decision and non-decision making processes. The reflections of Foucauldian power and knowledge-linkage are the third dimension. In order to exercise power over others, knowledge can be changed or shaped and a false consciousness created through socialization by institutions. This dimension is also part of the Machiavellian understanding. To be able to convince followers, a leader can manipulate interests and change the nature of truth.

Likewise, Kant (1724-1804) criticized Machiavellian understanding of seeing a leader as an exception to following moral rules. He developed a *deontologist* ethics approach rather than *consequentialism*²³. While evaluating if some action is right or wrong, deontological ethics focuses on the action itself rather than its consequences (Price, 2008). According to Kant (1964), leaders are not above the law and same as any ordinary person, whatever the issue, they must follow moral rules. Furthermore, Kant (1795: 76) classifies states, "*according to persons who hold highest authority in the state*

²² While defining power at society, Foucault (1977: 200) utilized Bentham's Panopticon design;

"...at the periphery, an annular building; at the centre, a tower; this tower is pierced with wide windows that open onto the inner side of the ring; the peripheric building is divided into cells, each of which extends the whole width of the building; they have two windows, one on the inside, corresponding to the windows of the tower; the other, on the outside, allows the light to cross the cell from one end to the other. All that is needed, then, is to place a supervisor in a central tower and to shut up in each cell a madman, a patient, a condemned man, a worker or a schoolboy. By the effect of backlighting, one can observe from the tower, standing out precisely against the light, the small captive shadows in the cells of the periphery. They are like so many cages, so many small theatres, in which each actor is alone, perfectly individualized and constantly visible. The panoptic mechanism arranges spatial unities that make it possible to see constantly and to recognize immediately. In short, it reverses the principle of the dungeon; or rather of its three functions _ to enclose, to deprive of light and to hide - it preserves only the first and eliminates the other two. Full lighting and the eye of a supervisor capture better than darkness, which ultimately protected. Visibility is a trap."

²³ Consequentialism is also known as teleological ethics. It is the doctrine that, the moral rightness of an act is determined solely by the goodness of the act's consequences (Audi, 1999:176).

or according to manner in which head of state governs people". Under the first classification, the state could be an autocracy (rule by one person), aristocracy (rule by a group of associated people), or democracy (rule by everyone who makes up civil society). Under the second cluster, the state could be either republican (government and legislation are separated), or despotic (state executes on its own authority and law) (Ibid). Kant supported representative types of government and separation of powers. For these reasons, democracy is considered the best type of government according to his understanding. In addition, Good leaders show respect and trust to followers and encourage their autonomy (Bowie, 2000). In lieu of establishing a vertical hierarchical order between leaders and followers, he encourages a more egalitarian approach and a less hierarchical relationship. He sees all followers as individuals with the same rights as the leaders who deserve to be treated equally and respectfully. This Kantian leadership understanding also prepared the ground for a democratic leadership type and participative leadership approach.

Carlyle (1841) emphasized the important role of "Great Men", such as the Prophet Muhammad, Attila the Hun, Julius Caesar, or Napoleon, in shaping world history. According to him, history of the world is just the collective biographies of such great men. *The Great Man Theory* states that leadership could only be acquired through birth, and not by experience. Carlyle (1841) developed the first trait-based leadership approach by giving meaning to great men beyond human abilities and influenced by divine inspiration. Galton (1892) supplemented Carlyle's natural-born leadership theory with his eugenics concept. Eugenics believes that quality of human beings could be enhanced through heredity (Galton, 1883). Trait-based leadership ignores timely social and situational forces that cause the emergence of leaders (Cawthon, 1996) and underestimates the role of education on their development. On the other hand, Stodgill (1948) differentiates the understanding of being a leader according to social situations: one person could be leader in one situation but this does not mean that he would be able to lead under other, and different, circumstances. Stodgill's views were accepted by a majority of his contemporaries. Even though trait-based leadership made a precise distinction between leader and non-leader, absence of situational variance in the essence of conjecture acted as a brake on the progress of trait-based leadership theory (Zaccora, 2007).

Like Carlyle and Galton, Weber (1947) emphasizes the role of divine origin in leadership. He utilizes the term "charisma" as a supernatural, heroic, or paramount

quality that distinguishes the individual from others. Ordinary people could not have that kind of quality, and an individual could only be defined as leader if he has charismatic attributes. Due to the nature of charisma, a free election is not possible in the process for emerging leaders. Additionally, Weber (1978:1125) emphasizes the role of followers accordingly:

“If the charismatic leader has not designated a successor, and if there are no obvious external characteristics, like those that usually facilitate identification in the case of incarnation, it may easily occur to the ruled that the participants [cleric] in his exercise of authority, the disciples and followers, are best suited to recognize the qualified successor. At any rate, since the disciples have in fact complete control over the instruments of power, they do not find it difficult to appropriate this role as a “right.” However, since the effectiveness of charisma rests on the faith of the ruled, their approval of the designated successor is indispensable. In fact, acknowledgment by the ruled was originally decisive.”

Weber defines the election process of a new king, pope, or bishop, by their disciples or followers, as a recognition or qualification of a charismatic leader (Ibid). Even though, Weber has not created a profound leadership theory (Conger, 2011), his definition of charismatic leadership has shifted the divine origin leadership theories from trait-based to ones based on charisma. Weber recognizes the followers’ role in leadership and perceives their relation from a reflexive perspective. In order to gain the recognition of their followers, leaders must first earn their respect through demonstrating their own positive traits and level of knowledge. The traits of leadership lead to the result of ensuring power over followers. These traits must also be well-reflected on the motivation and performance level of followers in a positive way. Otherwise, the power of the leader cannot be sustained over the followers for too long a period.

Until the French Revolution, monarchy dominated the world body politic, and correspondingly, leadership theories mostly developed around the axis of how to be strong or good monarchs. Due to the destructive impact of the French Revolution, monarchies began to weaken one after the other, and especially after the spread of the Industrialization Revolution, raising productivity and efficiency became paramount values thereafter in the 19th Century. To this effect, in the 20th Century, discussions about leadership transformed from consolidating monarchies to becoming efficient leaders.

Taylor (1911) reformed the strategic perspective of ancient leadership theorists for the purpose of increasing productivity at work. He raised the operational level leadership understanding through the term of “functional foreman”. Taylor gave much importance to

the concepts of power and knowledge in his management principles. According to him, power could be gained through knowledge in this management approach. Moreover, he expanded labour division among functional foremen according to their knowledge level. His leadership understanding was based on knowledge management which covered all production phases (Grint, 2011). Since he saw workers as akin to soldiering, hence, if the functional foreman did not know the production process better than them, they could find a way to cheat him and slow down production. In this manner, his leadership understanding is based on supervising and exercising influence over followers.

Strategic leadership perspectives were redefined by Fayol (1916) for the purpose of creating more effective organizations. He developed fourteen management principles for top management purposes: a. unity of command, b. authority and responsibility, c. discipline, d. unity of purpose, e. unity of direction, f. subordination of individual interest to the common good, g. remuneration of personnel, h. centralization, i. the hierarchy, j. order, k. equity, l. stability of tenure, m. initiative, and, n. esprit de corps (Ibid). Fayol believed that these principles were not only suitable for the French mining industry, but could easily be adapted for different organizations or institutions through the management framework of five common organizational functions: a. planning, b. organising, c. commanding, d. co-ordination, and, e. control (Smith and Boyns, 2005). Fayol's top-down approach brought a more holistic technique, than *Taylorism*, to the leadership literature. Besides, he realized the importance of managing the human factor in organizational productivity, and especially after the translation of his work, *General and Industrial Management*, into English in 1930, his influence on leadership issues extended beyond France and even found its way to the present day. Power is implicit at the centre of Fayol's management principles. It is expected that there will be one boss in the hierarchical order and followers must obey him/her. Afterwards, the followers' obedience will be amply rewarded for each individual. In addition, if Fayol's principles are applied consistently and institutionalized by leaders, they can reshape organizational culture for institutions as well.

The world's political and social structures were reshaped after the First World War. The Russian Monarchy was overthrown by the Bolshevik Revolution in October 1917. After the death of Lenin, Stalin came to power, and contrary to expectations, he shifted his political status towards dictatorship. Almost around the same period, Fascism first emerged in Italy and then extended to Germany, Spain, Japan and Argentina. The rise of

socialist dictatorships and fascism prepared the social atmosphere for emerging autocratic leaderships. Lewin and his colleagues (1939) investigated the impact of social climates on children's aggressive behaviours and recognized three types of leadership styles: a. autocratic, b. democratic, and, c. laissez-faire. Autocratic leaders did not ask other people's opinion and showed a tendency not to share power with anyone. They desired to see their own goals accepted as the group's common goals. On the contrary, democratic leaders included others in the decision making processes and offered two or three different goals while leaving the final decision to the consensus of group members (Lippit, 1939). Laissez-faire leaders did not interfere in the decision making processes and allowed people to make their own decisions (Lewin et al., 1939).

After the Second World War, the US economy began to grow rapidly and this hectic pace of growth brought much benefit to the people. Thereafter, individualistic culture began to gain more importance amongst the population. Parallel to this shift in dynamics of society, self-actualization approach became popular with the work of Maslow (1943). Self-actualization's reflection on leadership was also seen in the works of McGregor (1960) (Grint, 2011). McGregor (1960) divided people into two categories, as, "Theory X" and "Theory Y", according to his assumptions on human behaviour in the work environment. *Theory X* posited that average employees were lazy, lacked ambition, were incapable of self-control, and liked the status quo. Consequently, in order to manage them, managers must direct them towards organizational needs, control their actions tightly, motivate them with financial incentives, and when necessary, punish them without hesitation. On the other hand, in contrast to *Theory X*, *Theory Y* assumed that employees were hard-working, liked autonomy, were capable of self-control and self-direction, and eager to contribute to organizational needs for their desire to meet self-actualisation (Wilkinson, 1998). Thus, managers must support employees' individual progress, assert less control, allow for more initiative, and in place of giving them an operating manual, they must just say, "do it". Taking the 1960s political, socio-cultural, and work conditions into consideration, this work holds a very important place in leadership studies by realising individual differences among employees and developing different management approaches according to these variances. However, this study seems applicable in places where either self-actualization is very high, or very low, as it defines only two extreme sides; yet between zero and one there are numerous numbers. In addition, another flaw is the ignoring of interactive power and organizational culture relations in organizations. There is an ongoing relationship between power and culture

which cannot be stopped, continued, or changed, whenever someone desires. Without setting sustainable power dynamics in an organization, changing official management policies in short terms can harm the solidity of organizational culture as well.

In the 1950s, Ohio State University researchers investigated variant types of effective leadership behaviours in different organizational contexts. They found two main behavioural patterns: first was, “supporting and concerning for subordinates”, and second, “providing detailed planning” that indicated how to reach desired goals or tasks. Almost at the same time, University of Michigan researchers conducted a study on effective leadership behaviours and found almost the same results as those of Ohio State University. These two works triggered the birth of *contingency leadership theories* in the 1960s (Seyranian, 2009).

Contingency leadership theory scrutinized the impact of situational variables (e.g. characteristics of task, employees, leader, and leadership position) on leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 2011). Fiedler (1967) was the first to develop contingency theory of leadership effectiveness. There were three main steps in his theory. First step was identifying types of leader behaviour pattern: either task-oriented or human relationship oriented. In order to determine this, Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) scale asked leaders to consider a person with whom they did not work well and to rate their feelings vis-à-vis that person on a scale from one to eight: a high score indicating human relationship-oriented behaviour while a low score referring to task-oriented behaviour. Second step was determining favourableness of the situation that affected the leader's effectiveness with three dimensions. First dimension indicated leader and member relations, as good or bad. Second dimension referred to the level of power that was utilized by leader, as high or low. Third dimension indicated task structure which was the degree of task's clarity and leader's capacity to design goal-path (high or low). The final step was determining the most effective leadership style according to specific situations. Even though the theory was updated several times (Fiedler and Garcia, 1987; and, Fiedler, 1993), it was highly criticized by academics due to weak links between individuals' LPS score and their approach to leadership (Landy, 1989), rigid structure of theory, lack of good reliability (many academics could not reproduce Fiedler's findings) (Haslam, Reicher and Platow, 2011), and inconsistent results of measuring key variables (Parry and Bryman, 2012). However, contingency theories in accordance to Fiedler's work dominated the leadership literature between 1960 and the 1980s, but due to

insufficient empirical support for all aspects of the theory (Yukl, 2011) and inability to grasp the psychological dynamics of interaction between leader and followers²⁴ (Reynolds et al., 2010; Haslam, Reicher and Platow, 2011), they lost their popularity thereafter.

Unlike contingency theorists, Hollander (1964, 1971 and 1995) realized that leadership was not a leader-centric process. Rather, followers had active roles and the two groups were not disparate entities. Thus, he developed a transactional leadership approach that covered mutual interaction between leader and followers and centred on followers' satisfaction vis-à-vis leader's actions (Hollander and Offermann, 1990). According to Bass (1997), transactional leadership utilized the combination of positive and negative incentives and non-leadership factors. In the beginning, leader gave clear organizational expectations to subordinates, and if they met them, as a result of this success, he/she awarded them contingent rewards. This formed the positive incentive segment of the theory. On the other hand, negative incentive factor had two elements. Firstly, active management by exception: the leader monitored followers' performance and when they were falling short of standards, he took corrective actions. Secondly, passive management by exception: leader utilized negative feedback or punishment when he saw unwanted serious acts from followers. Finally, laissez-faire leadership formed the non-leadership component of the theory. Leader did not intervene in decision making processes and did not take subordinates' responsibilities. The essence of transactional leadership is to achieve an intersection between the leader's goals and followers' satisfaction. If transactional leadership is not embedded into organizational culture and not supported by human resource policy by providing insufficient power to leaders, this understanding fails to provide for the needs of strategic leadership perspective, such as, developing vision and implementing change, and then can be effective only at an operational level. To this effect, it begins to be utilized as a complementary theory of transformational leadership in organizations. Major historical changes occurred in the decade spanning 1970 to 1980: culmination of the war in Vietnam, The Watergate Scandal, first female British Prime Minister, USSR's invasion of Afghanistan, Iran's transformation to an Islamic republic, commencement of the Iran-Iraq war, global energy crises, emergence of Spain as a democracy, Israel-Egypt peace

²⁴ Haslam et al. (2011: 27) referred that, "there are two problems in this context: The first is that each term in the interaction is conceptualized as a fixed entity that is separate from the other. The second is that only one of these terms, the person, is the subject of a properly psychological analysis".

treaty, and China's economic reforms based on foreign investment. While things which seemed impossible began to occur in world body politics and economy, in order to be able to adapt to this breath-taking environment, organizations began to implement major changes accordingly. Still, the static nature of leadership theories of the period did not respond to this need, and in order to manage change, transformational leadership theory emerged in that decade.

Downton (1973) was first to utilize transformational leadership terms in the literature, but Burns (1978) developed a theoretical framework for political transformational leadership and brought wider understanding to the concept. Subsequently, Bass (1985, 1990, 1997, 1998) expanded the theory to business and public sectors through creating measures of value, such as, "The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire" and the nine factorial²⁵, and "Full Range Leadership model" (Diaz-Saenz, 2011). Burns (1978:20) defined transformational leadership not as *"a set of specific behaviors, but rather an ongoing process by which leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation"*. Maslow's hierarchical needs theory, especially self-esteem and self-actualization higher needs, influenced Burns' concept (Munirat and Nzelibe, 2012; and, Grooms, 2013). Transformational leaders must lead at the level of higher needs as they must enhance the benefits of followers, transform group's mission, aim at followers' own values, and make followers believe that the group's good trumps their own wants and needs (Burns, 1978). At this juncture, the ability to convince followers and attain their support gains importance. In order to achieve this, the leader must be seen as a respected figure by followers. Charisma becomes an important element of leadership to acquire and maintain respect of others. Moreover, Bass (1985), unlike Burns, did not make a precise separation between transactional and transformational leadership, as he posited that transactional leadership was a complementary part of transformational leadership. When works within organizational constraints were performed, the transactional leader was necessary. On the other hand, when change was necessary, transformational leadership came into the fore (Bass, 1997). Transformational leadership has been referred to, and utilized by, many academics and still holds its popularity amongst them. Nevertheless, it has garnered much criticism for giving too much credit to the role of the leader while ignoring the

²⁵ The nine factors are: identifying and articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations, providing individualized support, intellectual stimulation, contingent reward, active/passive management by exception, and laissez-faire leadership (Diaz-Saenz, 2011:300).

impact of individuals, groups, and organizational development, in the leadership process (Diaz-Saenz, 2011). Hereby, an important question reveals itself: When transformational leader quits his position, how does this gap affect the vision and strategy of organizations? Hence, transformational leaders must be aware of the importance of sharing power in the decision making process. Herein, the common mind must be encouraged and followers and other stakeholders must be included in the decision making process as well.

Lord and Maher (1991) desired to moderate the weight and importance of the leader. Consequently, they added followers' perception and expectations to their implicit leadership theory (ILT). Though different from transactional leadership, ILT recognized the role of social categorization in leadership (Haslam et al., 2011), and with its cognitive structure regarding the traits and behaviours of followers (Lord et al., 1982 and 1984), became one of the main leadership theories utilized in cross-cultural researches. After the demise of the USSR in 1991, capitalism remained the unrivalled economic system in the world and began to spread to former Eastern Bloc countries. The economic expansion was not limited to a financial dimension but also started a mutual cultural diffusion process. Especially, after the European Union's enlargement decision in 2004, this mutual cultural interaction process reached peak levels. Many organizations began to employ foreign employees, and thereby, were transformed into multinational companies. This major shift also brought some difficulties in utilization of current leadership approaches, because classic leadership understanding ignored cultural diversity and accepted all employees as homogenous. Hereby, the Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness Research (GLOBE) project became a milestone in leadership studies through investigating the impact of cultural diversity on leadership effectiveness. The GLOBE research developed its own culturally endorsed ILT that is composed of six leadership dimensions.

Even geographical borders between countries have not changed much recently. Due to employment of foreign employees in many organizations, cultural borders have begun to disappear between nations. Now, it is very common to see different nationalities working in the same organization. This progress increased the importance of cross-cultural leadership day by day, but contrary to the present need, there is not much research about this topic in the existing literature. Therefore, due to ever expanding and

dynamic process of globalization, it is assumed that cross-cultural leadership theories will dominate the leadership literature in the near future.

2.2.3. Culture Theories

The term culture has been a key concept in anthropology since the 19th Century. Particularly in the US, anthropology was seen as a holistic discipline in social science, under two major divisions of physical anthropology and cultural anthropology (Fox, 1985). Physical anthropology is concerned with changes in the human form. In the 19th Century, these changes were seen from an evolutionary perspective²⁶ and were utilized to support the belief of white European superiority over other races. Nowadays, it is not utilized as a tool for scientific racism, but instead only focuses on human physical diversity in the world (Edgar and Sedwick, 1999). On the other hand, cultural anthropology accepts man as a social being (Kuper, 1985) and investigates culturally original thoughts and behaviours in a society (Rapport and Overing, 2000).

Taylor (1871:1), as one of the pioneers of cultural anthropology, departed from physical anthropology with his definition of culture:

“Culture or civilization, taken in its wide ethnographic sense is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by as a member of society. The condition of culture among the various societies of mankind, in so far as it is capable of being investigated on general principles, is a subject apt for the study of laws of human thought and action.”

Taylor believed that there is no difference between the mind of a savage and that of civilized men, because human minds were the same everywhere. To this effect, culture concept was similar for all human beings (Ibid). Boas (1896) did not accept Taylor's assumption about cultural similarity (Stocking, 1966) and developed the concept of cultural relativism (Hendry, 2008). His cultural relativism approach was based on, *“understanding the individual as living in his culture; and the culture as lived by individuals”* (Boas, 1959: 54). Because, according to him, every culture has its own relative system that was formed by the integration of its own symbols, ideals, and values

²⁶ The main representatives of this perspective were Morton (1839), Gobineau (1854), Darwin (1859), Vogt (1864), and Haeckel (1876).

(Stocking, 1966; Kuper, 1985; and, Eriksen and Nielsen, 2001). Unlike Boas, Mead (1970) saw culture from an evolutionary perspective and defined three types:

- a. *Postfigurative*: in which children learn primarily from their forebears,
- b. *Cofigurative*: in which both children and adults learn from their peers,
- c. *Prefigurative*: in which adults also learn from their children (Ibid: 31)

According to her, cultural evolution concept could be explained with the term, “generational interaction”, which shows the reflection of living time. In this context, human culture experienced an irreversible evolutionary change through generational interaction that was based on the past, present, and future orientations (Bois, 1971). While defining culture, like Mead, Geertz (1973) focused on the impact of history on social life:

Culture is “... *an historically transmitted pattern of meanings embodied in symbols, a system of inherited conceptions expressed in symbolic forms by means of which men communicate, perpetuate and develop their knowledge about, and attitudes toward life*” (Ibid: 89).

Even though Harris (1979) was known as a cultural anthropologist, he tried to create a scientific culture theory, named *cultural materialism*, which could be accepted not only by anthropologists but also by everyone else. He defined culture as, “*the learned repertory of thoughts and actions exhibited by the members of social group*” (Ibid: 47). His cultural materialism theory “...*is a commitment to search for the probabilistic causes of human behavior in the infrastructure (the mode of production and the mode of reproduction)*” (Ibid: 278). By the term cultural materialism, he tried to understand the similarities and differences in human thought and behaviour. Hence, he made a distinction between the terms “*emics* and *etics*”. In short, the term “emics” represents the local, or the native’s, perspective, while “etics” represents an observer or researcher’s perspective. These two terms complement each other while interpreting culture (Ibid). Additionally, he brought a major critique to sociology for trying to understand cultural dynamics of a society without synthesising emic and etic perspectives.

The human, as a social being, was the central subject of sociology. Comtè (1856) was first to utilize the term *sociology* in today’s context. He divided human thought into

three stages: religious or theological²⁷, metaphysical or abstract²⁸, and scientific or positive²⁹ (Howell, 2004 and 2013; and, Honderich, 2005). Furthermore, he adapted principles of natural science to the social world. Sociology relates to cultural issues investigated by the concepts of symbolic interaction³⁰, myth, ritual³¹ and ethnomethodology³² (Ouchi and Wilkins, 1985). Durkheim (1933) and Weber (1947), as well known representatives of sociology, performed important research as regarded the relationship between culture and industrialization (Brannen, 2003). Durkheim (1912), in lieu of the term *culture*, utilized, “*collective representation*”³³ (Hatch, 1973), and posited that it was the reflection of social cooperation on the organization of a society. Moreover, Durkheim (1933) investigated the dynamics of society and concluded that dissimilarities within it were not a threat to social cohesion. “Organic Solidarity”, which held people together through interdependence with many different and complementary roles, provided more freedom in industrial societies (Moberg, 2013). Individuals generate social power in societies and institutions which makes them live longer through organic solidarity. However, this form of power is not an obstacle to the progress of emic perspectives and differences. On the contrary, it helps the enrichment of local cultures, especially in the form of beliefs, symbols, rituals, sentiments and language, in societies.

Conversely, Weber did not utilize the concept of *organismic analogy* (Moberg, 2013), or cohesion of the social system (Schroeder, 1992), but rather emphasized the impact of differences in the economic and social structure, and the internal power

²⁷ “The theological perspective develops dialectically through fetishism, polytheism, and monotheism, as events are understood as animated by their own will, that of several deities, or the decree of one Supreme Being.” <https://web.duke.edu/secmod/biographies/Comte.pdf> Accessed 04 August 2014

²⁸ “As civilization progresses, the metaphysical stage begins as a criticism of these conceptions in the name of a new order. Supernatural entities are gradually transformed into abstract forces; just as political rights are codified into systems of law” (Ibid).

²⁹ “The search for absolute knowledge is abandoned in favour of a modest but precise inquiry into the Relative laws of nature. The absolutist and feudal social orders are replaced gradually by increasing social progress achieved through the application of scientific knowledge” (Ibid).

³⁰ According to symbolic interaction, ‘human beings act toward things on the basis of the meanings that these things have for them’ (Blumer, 1969:2).

³¹ James Frazer and the Cambridge ritualists, such as Jane Harrison, F.M. Cornford, and A.B. Crook, are known as the main representatives of the myth and ritual school. They investigate the relationship between myth and ritual and mainly believe that “myth is derived from the ritual” (Meletinsky, 2000).

³² Ethnomethodology examines “the way in which society’s members create the ordered social world where they live” (Edgar and Sedwick, 1999: 134).

³³ Durkheim (1912: 16) defined collective representation as, “the result of an immense co-operation, which stretches out not only into space but into time as well; to make them, a multitude of minds have associated, united and combined their ideas and sentiments; for them, long generations have accumulated their experience and their knowledge”.

structure of a nation, on customs³⁴ (Weber, 1978). According to him, customs, common language, religion, and political memories, were important elements of culture (Ibid), and, “*culture is the endowment of a finite segment of the meaningless infinity of events in the world with meaning and significance from the standpoint of human beings*” (Weber, 1949: 81). In addition, in his book, *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*, Weber (1930) claimed that religion as a part of culture, especially Protestantism³⁵, contributed to the progress of capitalism in the West. On the other hand, due to the greater role religion plays in the state structure of the United States, as compared to Europe, Protestantism, with its chief characteristic of showing no tolerance for dishonesty, has influenced American political history³⁶ and to this day continues to impact her political culture (Kalberg, 2012). Cultural reflection in the form of religion affects expectations of leadership. Herein, trustworthiness as the fundamental trait of leader emerges. However, according to Weber, religion is not a sole entity that shapes our cultural or leadership expectations, but also an iron cage of mechanization and rationalism that surrounds our mental formation of expectations as well.

Bourdieu (1984) criticized cultural anthropologists’ subjectivity and sociologists’ objectivity³⁷, but did not reject these two approaches and tried to find a middle-ground between them, through the use of the terms, “habitus” and “field” (Grenfell, 2014). The habitus is a “structuring structure” which organizes practices, and perceptions of practices, and is also a “structured structure” because it organizes the perception of the social world (Bourdieu, 1984:166). Habitus acts in the social structure, which is called the “field” (Swartz, 1997): the combination of *habitus* and *field* form practice. Social actors and previous events take active roles in this combination process (Wacquant, 2008;

³⁴ Before defining the term, “custom”, Weber (1978:29) defined the word “usage”: “if an orientation toward social action occurs regularly, it will be called “usage”. A usage will be called “custom” if the practice is based upon long standing”.

³⁵ Protestantism is a Christian belief system which is based on reformation in the religion. Weber (1930) took mainly Calvinism as a main reference in the Protestantism. Calvinism encourages becoming honest, hardworking and modest in human behaviours.

³⁶ After President Andrew Johnson’s impeachment in 1868 (violation of the Tenure of Office Act), impeachment mechanisms were carried out only for two presidents: Richard Nixon (after resignation, his case was closed) and Bill Clinton. Impeachment process is utilized to remove President, Vice President, and all civil officers of the United States from their posts due to accusation of high crimes, such as treason, bribery, etc. Even their cases seemed totally different from the outside; Nixon was the principal actor of the Watergate scandal (knowing in advance the plan of attempted burglary against his political rivals); and Clinton caused the Monica Lewinsky scandal (sexual affair with a White House intern, Monica Lewinsky). Both men were accused of perjury.

³⁷ Bourdieu categorized previous cultural studies into two groups: firstly, structural tradition which saw culture as a part of knowledge and communication, and secondly, the functionalist tradition saw culture as a part of social infrastructure (Grenfell, 2014).

Moore, 2012). Bourdieu's cultural understanding reflected on the research topic as well: Agent, as a staff with the impact of habitus, such as, nationality, background, values and beliefs, interacts with the field as an IO. The interaction between habitus and field influences the practice of staff motivation.

Since modern culture concept emerged in the 19th Century (Fox, 1985), due to the impact of cultural anthropology and sociology, cultural research has had a tendency to understand and explain human behavioural patterns. However, after the huge and unexpected success of Japanese firms in the 1970s, scholars such as Marsh and Mannari (1971), Cole (1971), Dore (1973), Ouchi and Price (1978), Vogel (1979), Pascale & Athos (1981), and Peterson (1988), began to investigate their secrets through conducting comparative analysis studies between them and their Western counterparts. This academic curiosity became a milestone in the cultural research arena: In order to provide a better understanding for the term *culture*, cultural studies were divided into two main categories in the literature, as organizational culture and national culture (Ouchi and Wilkins, 1985).

2.2.3.1 Organizational Culture

Ouchi and Price (1978) investigated both state and private Japanese organizations and realised that bureaucratic hierarchy was weaker in them than in Western organizations, while coordination and organization of people were the main responsibility of management. Moreover, Japanese organizational culture was based on a more humanistic approach, such as showing respect for common values and beliefs of their society (Ouchi, 1981). Ouchi and Price (1978) posited that individual goals of employees must meet organizational objectives, and in order to provide for this aim, they developed the "Type Z Organization" concept. Unlike classic Western type organizations, Type Z represented that of the culture of Japanese organizations in which common characteristics were stable and the following criteria existed: long-term employment, slow process of evaluation and promotion, moderately specialized careers, collective decision making processes, individual responsibility, implicit control, and holistic concern. According to Ouchi (1981), organizations are living organisms and have their own theories of culture. In order to reach success, Western organizations need not imitate their Japanese counterparts, but should rather adapt their institutions to Type Z.

While developing organizational culture concept, Pettigrew (1979) tried to combine the terms, cultural anthropology and sociology. He defined organizational culture as “the source of a family of concepts”, such as, symbols³⁸, language³⁹, ideology⁴⁰, beliefs, rituals⁴¹ and myths⁴², and a social form of organizational analysis (Pettigrew, 2000). Smircich (1983) took Pettigrew’s organizational culture definition as a starting point and synthesized culture concept from anthropology, and organization concept from organizational theory. She founded five themes which provide links between culture and organization: cross cultural or comparative research, corporate culture, organizational cognition, organizational symbolism, and unconscious process (Ibid). Additionally, she supported Siehl and Martin’s (1981), and Tichy’s (1982), views which saw “culture as social or normative glue that held an organization together” (Smircich, 1983: 344). She inferred culture as a bridge in the organization but did not clearly define its role and impact on followers and leader from a cultural perspective.

Schein (2004) broke away the domination of cultural anthropology and sociology, on the definition of organizational culture, through utilizing leadership perspective. According to him, dynamic processes of culture and management are at the core of leadership. At first, a leader structured organizational culture, and then, structured culture, would determine who would be next leader. Even today, one of the most accepted definitions of organizational culture belongs to him.

“A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems” (Schein, 2004: 12).

Parallel to the development of the global economy, organizations began to grow and develop more complex structures. In so doing, organizational culture emerged as an important figure in an organizational research. This was because scholars realized that

³⁸ “Symbols are objects, acts, relationships, or linguistic formations that stand ambiguously for a multiplicity of meanings, evoke emotions, and impel men to action” (Cohen, 1974: 23).

³⁹ Language infers to vocal signs (Pettigrew, 1979).

⁴⁰ “Ideology is a set of beliefs about social world and how it operates, containing statements about rightness of certain social arrangements and what action would be undertaken in the light of those statements” (Wilson, 1973: 91).

⁴¹ Ritual is “the symbolic use of bodily movement and gesture in a social situation to express and articulate meaning” (Bocock, 1974: 37).

⁴² Myth “contains narrative of events often with a sacred quality which explores in dramatic form issues of origin and transformation” (Pettigrew, 1979: 576).

without responding to organizational culture, it is rather difficult to adapt or change anything in organizations. Likewise, after Schein, understanding organizational culture was seen as an inseparable part of the leadership concept by many scholars.

The importance of understanding and responding to organizational culture, in effective leadership, was also emphasized by Deal and Kennedy (1999). They illustrated five components of organizational culture⁴³: a. Business environment, b. Values and beliefs, c. Heroic figures (role models), d. Ritual and ceremony, and, e. Cultural network (Ibid). However, their findings were criticized by many scholars for not pursuing academic rigour in including only very successful companies in the research process; in lieu of empirical data, utilizing anecdotes from top management, giving too much emphasis to corporate excellence for managerial effectiveness, and ignoring other factors, such as, organizational structure, regulations, technological development, and the impact of competitive markets (Carroll, 1983; Reynolds, 1986; Xenikou and Furnham, 2013).

Hofstede (2001: 391) defined organizational culture as, *“the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one organization from others”*. The nature of organizational culture was holistic, socially created, but historically shaped, related to rituals and symbols, non-measurable, resistant to change, and when these attributes combined, they formed organizational culture (Hofstede et al., 2010). Moreover, in order to be utilized in organizational comparative studies, Hofstede (2001) developed six dimensions of organizational culture: a. Process-oriented versus results-oriented, b. Employee-oriented versus job-oriented, c. Parochial (Local) versus professionalism, d. Open systems versus closed systems, e. Loose control versus tight control, and, f. Normative (Internal) versus pragmatic (external). Waisfisz (2007) added two semi-autonomous dimensions to this model, as, degree of leadership style acceptance and degree of identification with an organization.

Until Hofstede's famous book in 1980, *“Culture's Consequences”*, investigating organizational culture was the norm for grasping holistic organizational perspectives in all types of organizations. However, Hofstede (2001) suggested that managers who were unaware of the national culture of their business arena may bring harm to their company's standing if they only take into consideration their company's organizational

⁴³ Deal and Kennedy (1999) utilized the term, corporate culture, equivalent to organizational culture, in their book, *The New Corporate Culture*.

culture. In order to prevent this undesired result, companies must utilize the training of cross-cultural institutes, or develop their own program by employing host-country personnel as instructors. What is more, after his wide-ranging research at the International Business Machines (IBM) Corporation, he categorized countries according to their cultural attributes. His national cultural cluster approach was generally accepted by scholars and Hofstede became one of the most referenced authors in cultural studies.

Through accelerative impact of globalization, presently, it is very common to see multinational organizations and foreign employers on the global economic markets. Either organizations invest and do business in other countries, or people go abroad for work. In either case, people will not leave their national cultural characteristic at home, but instead will take it with them wherever they go. Therefore, nowadays, understanding national culture becomes an important component of cultural research. Organizational culture and national culture must complement each other to provide mutual understanding while dealing with staff motivation at IOs.

2.2.3.2. National Culture

Hofstede et al. (2010) criticized giving an identity meaning to national culture and organization culture and made a clear distinction between them by utilizing a combination of values and beliefs:

“National cultures are part of the mental software we acquired during the first ten years of our lives, in the family, in the living environment, and in school, and they contain most of our basic values. Organizational cultures are acquired when we enter a work organization as young adults, with our values firmly in place and they consist mainly of the organization’s practices- they are more superficial (Ibid: 346)”.

Hofstede (2001) utilized six dimensions to differentiate and categorize national culture: a. Power Distance (PD) was taken from the work of Mauk Mulder (1976, 1977; Mulder et al., 1971) in which power distance theory was founded in a laboratory and field experiments with simple social structures. PD expresses the degree of inequality in power between subordinates and managers; b. Uncertainty Avoidance (UA) was derived from Cyert and March’s (1963) book, “A Behavioural Theory of the Firm”. UA indicates tolerance of a society for uncertainty and ambiguity; c. Individualism versus Collectivism (IVC) emerged from Parsons and Shils’ (1951) “Self-orientation versus Collectivity”

orientation concept. In addition, Hofstede's individualism is related significantly with the need for affiliation in McClelland's content analysis of 1925's children's readers. IVC pins down either individualism or collectivism as effective in a society; d. Masculinity versus Femininity (MVF) was inspired from the work of Herzberg et al. (1957) which investigated the impact of sex differences in work goals of US companies. MVF indicates how society deals with the duality of sexes; e. Long versus Short-Term Orientation (LVSTO): Research by Bond and colleagues among students of 23 countries led Hofstede in 1991 to add a fifth dimension, referred to as LVSTO, which focuses on a society's time concern as past, present or future; and, f. Indulgence versus Restraint (IVR) was added in 2010, based on Michael Minkov's world values survey data analysis: *"Indulgence stands for a society that allows relatively free gratification of basic and natural human drives related to enjoying life and having fun. Restraint represents a society that suppresses gratification of needs and regulates it by means of strict social norms"* (Hofstede et al., 2010: 92).

"One of Hofstede's major criticisms came from McSweeney (2002). He infers that his conceptualization of national culture is based on flawed assumptions, such as organizational, occupational and national cultures, which are discrete and not interactive with each other: the micro, local and national, are uniform; the dimensions of national culture can be produced by questionnaire responses; different responses indicate differences in national values; and, national culture is not influenced by the location of the organization. Therefore, the findings of Hofstede are invalid. Furthermore, she infers that culture can be managed by the conditions of utilizing action theories which can deal with 'change, power, variety, multiple influences -including the non-national- and complexity and situational variability of the individual subject' (Ibid:113). Conversely, Legge (2005) objects to this inference, because of the complex nature of culture it cannot be managed but only understood. Both McSweeney and Legge have logical consistency in their arguments, but the researcher believes that culture can be managed by leaders who have cultural intelligence. Herein, there is no need for cultural packet programs or handbooks specific to each nation's traits, but there is the need for education and training to increase awareness of a leader's cultural intelligence.

Unlike Hofstede's frameworks which were based on posterior theorizing, Schwartz's (1992) cultural value dimensions were based on *a priori* theorizing (Schwartz, 2006; and, Hsu et. al, 2013). While he was developing value orientations, Schwartz mostly utilized the works of the following researchers: Durkheim, 1912/1954; Freud,

1930; Parsons, 1951; Kluckhohn, 1951; Morris, 1956; Maslow, 1965; Williams, 1968; Korman, 1974; Deci, 1975; and, Kohn & Schooler, 1983. These dimensions are as follows: a. Embeddedness vs. Autonomy, concerns the relations of the individual and the group in a society (Hsu et. al, 2013); b. Hierarchy vs. Egalitarianism, expresses people's responsibilities and behaviours related to their societal tasks and roles (Schwartz, 2006); and, c. Harmony vs. Mastery emphasizes the way people manage to fit in the natural and social world (Hsu et. al, 2013:9). Schwartz (1999) emphasized the relation of culture and leadership vis-à-vis the legitimacy of an unequal distribution of power, roles, and resources, thorough hierarchy's dimension. Moreover, he benefited from Maslow's motivational theory while developing the values of Achievement, Security and Benevolence. It has to be noted here that achievement values should not be confused with McClelland's (1961) achievement motivation. Achievement value deals with showing competence by prevailing cultural standards, hence social approval can be obtained (Schwartz, 2012). As well, Schwartz defines power as social status or hierarchy which ensures control over individuals. This definition represents characteristics of Western hard power perspective which sees power as material. However, the Schwartz model covers Hofstede's cultural dimensions and provides an alternative cultural approach for researchers.

Trompenaars and Hamden-Turner (1999) took Parsons' four-value orientations (Parsons, 1951) and added two more of their own: a. Universalism/particularism: Universalism looks for uniformity and affinity but particularism searches for differences (Hamden-Turner and Trompenaars, 2004); b. Communitarianism/individualism: Communitarianism categorizes cultures thorough the relationships of individuals and group interests (Trompenaars and Hamden-Turner, 1999); c. Specificity/diffuseness engages entering specific areas of private life and diffuses in multiple social areas of lives; d. Achieved/ascribed is the degree of understanding the reflection of status conceptualizes on people; e. Inner direction/outer direction seeks to explore how people from different cultures respond to the natural environment and changes; and, f. Sequential and Synchronous Time shows how different cultures comment on the meaning of the past, present and future (Ibid). According to Trompenaars (1999), organizations and project teams must become more mature in managing cultural diversity. They described maturity as moving from recognizing to respecting to reconciling cultural differences. Hamden-Turner and Trompenaars' cultural model does not have a deep theoretical perspective. It takes its main bulk of theory from Parsons

(1951) and gives the impression that it is written for the business sector rather than academia by providing useful practical hints for managers who are dealing with multinationals.

Different from other cultural cluster researches, the GLOBE study examines the impact of culture on leadership and develops nine dimensions⁴⁴. It directly borrows Hofstede's power distance and UA dimensions. Hereby, Hofstede's IVC dimension is divided into two parts, as Collectivism I (Institutional), and Collectivism II (In-Group). Furthermore, Hofstede's masculinity was divided into Assert and Gender Egalitarianism dimensions. Future Orientation (FO) dimension was taken from Kluckhohn and Strodbeck's (1961) Past, Present and Future Orientation dimensions. Performance Orientation (PO) has its origin in McClelland's (1985a-b) theory. Finally, Human Orientation (HO) was derived from Kluckhohn and Strodbeck's work (1961), Putnam's (1993) work on civil society, and McClelland's (1985a-b) motivation theory (House et al., 2004). The GLOBE Study, as one of the latest versions of culture models, updated flaws of other earlier culture models and provided a more holistic perspective through covering power, leadership and culture concepts and melting them in the same pot.

These four cultural cluster studies have the tendency to separate societies according to their cultural components. As seen in Table 2.1, there are close similarities between these models. After emergence of Hofstede's research in 1980, all other models were developed in its axis and provided etic Western perspective to the existing literature. Here, Fang (2012) holds an important place in the literature, because unlike other mentioned models, he combines etic and emic perspectives in national cultural studies through utilizing ancient Eastern philosophy of Yin Yang⁴⁵. According to Fang (2012: 25):

"...all cultures share the same potential in value orientations, but at the same time they are also different from each other because each culture is a unique dynamic portfolio of self-selected globally available value orientations as a consequence of that culture's all-dimensional learning over time."

⁴⁴ The definitions of these dimensions will be given in chapter on theory.

⁴⁵ Yin Yang philosophy infers that the universe is shaped by two opposite, but complementary, forces named Yin and Yang. Hereby, Yin embodies feminine attributes, such as, night and weakness. On the other hand, Yang represents masculine attributes, such as, day and strength (Fang: 2012: 31).

Fang (2012) posited that culture was not a homogenous concept because it contained paradoxes⁴⁶, diversity, change, opposite values, and beliefs in its nature. However, these contradictions with interaction between each other provided a holistic and complementary understanding in the national culture concept. Fang brought a critical approach to the existing national cultural studies through adapting Yin and Yang philosophy, but in lieu of providing an alternative theory, he presented some propositions⁴⁷. Moreover, although he utilized an Eastern philosophy, his cultural approach did not provide pure Eastern perspectives, because even he differentiated Chinese dialectic and Western ones through referring to Peng and Nisbett (2000)⁴⁸. His cultural approach has many similarities with Hegelian dialectic⁴⁹ and Harris's cultural materialism⁵⁰.

⁴⁶ Paradox means, "contradictory yet interrelated elements that seem logical in isolation but absurd and irrational when appearing simultaneously (Lewin, 2000: 760).

⁴⁷ +Vi and -Vi (i: 1, 2, 3 ...n) stand for different paradoxical value orientations.

Proposition 1: If there exists {'+V1', '+V2', '+V3' . . . '+Vn'} in a culture, {'-V1', '-V2', '-V3' . . . '-Vn'} can coexist in the same culture depending on the situation, context, and time (Fang: 2012:36).

Proposition 2: To guide action in a given context at a given time, human beings choose the most relevant value(s) from the full spectrum of potential value orientations ranging from {'+V1', '+V2', '+V3' . . . '+Vn'}, to {'-V1', '-V2', '-V3' . . . '-Vn'} (Ibid: 38).

Proposition 3: In a culture, in a particular context at a particular time, some values {'+V1', '+V2', '+V3' . . . '+Vn'} can be promoted, while other values {'-V1', '-V2', '-V3' . . . '-Vn'} can be suppressed, thus resulting in a unique value configuration (Ibid: 39).

Proposition 4: Each culture is a unique dynamic portfolio of self-selected globally available value orientations ranging from {'+V1', '+V2', '+V3' . . . '+Vi'}, to {'-V1', '-V2', '-V3' . . . '-Vi'} as a consequence of the culture's all-dimensional learning over time (Ibid: 41).

⁴⁸ Chinese dialectical thought denies the reality of true contradiction, accepts the unity of opposites, and regards the coexistence of opposites as permanent. Belief in genuine contradiction is regarded as a kind of error. The Western Marxist dialectic treats contradiction as real but defines it differently from the Western Aristotelian tradition, in terms not of the laws of formal logic but rather by the three laws of dialectical logic (Peng and Nisbett, 2000: 1067).

⁴⁹ Thesis and anti-thesis form synthesis in Hegelian dialectic.

⁵⁰ While interpreting culture, Harris (1979) utilized the combination of etic and emic perspectives.

NAME	HOFSTEDE	SCHWARTZ	TROMPENAARS AND H-TURNER	GLOBE RESEARCH PROJECT
DATE	1980	1992	1993	2004
SURVEYED ORGANIZATION	Multinational	National and Sub-National Ethnic Group	Multinational	National
RESPONDENTS	Non-Managers & Managers	Students and School Teachers	Non-Managers and Managers	Managers
DIMENSIONS	1. Power Distance 2. Uncertainty Avoidance 3. Individualism versus Collectivism 4. Masculinity versus Femininity 5. Long versus Short-Term Orientation 6. Indulgence versus Restraint	1. Autonomy vs. Embeddedness 2. Egalitarianism vs. Hierarchy 3. Harmony vs. Mastery	1. Universalism/Particularism 2. Communitarianism/Individualism 3. Specificity/Diffuseness 4. Achieved/Ascribed 5. Inner direction/Outer direction 6. Sequential and Synchronous Time	1. Power Distance 2. Uncertainty Avoidance 3. Collectivism I (Institutional) 4. Collectivism II (In-Group) 5. Future Orientation 6. Assertiveness 7. Gender Egalitarianism 8. Humane Orientation 9. Performance Orientation

Table 2.1: Comparison of Main Cultural Studies.

2.2.4. Conclusion

Theory has played a fundamental role in the history of social science development. Many theories have changed the direction of social science and have given a new way to it based on their hypotheses and perspectives. Furthermore, theory provides a better understanding to reality and knowledge of phenomenon in social science. Therefore, this section aimed to provide reliable theoretical literature review.

Theoretical literature review has been evaluated from a broad perspective to a specific focus. Moreover, the researcher utilizes critical theory as a paradigm of inquiry in the research. The reality in critical theory referred to as historical realism desires to understand reality through historical analysis. To this effect, this section has demonstrated the chronological development of grand theories and how these relate and inter-relate.

Motivation, leadership, and culture, are separated grand theories, but when theory reflects on practice of staff motivation, these three grand theories intersect and interacts. However, it is rather difficult to differentiate which one is more dominant in its interactions or draws sharp lines in its interrelations, but we can conclude that they have an ongoing and reflexive relation. They are shaping and shaped by each other. The next section will discuss these reflections on the research topic.

2.3 Research Topic Literature Review

Kant (1995) states that if something is valid in theory, it will be applicable in practice as well. Theory and practice should not be separated but should be reflected as a whole in the research process. In order to see the reflection of theories on practice, this section will investigate how existing literature influences the progress of the research topic. Herein, the philosophical conception of IOs, and empirical constituents of grand theories of research, such as, motivation, culture, and leadership for IOs, will be examined.

2.3.1 Philosophical Conception of IOs

Although their philosophical conception dates back to the 16th Century's Enlightenment Movement, IOs were originally instituted in the 19th Century. Individuals began to realize the importance of the *self* by the end of the Medieval Age, and with the coming of the Renaissance, this acknowledgement was intensified (Kilicbay, 2005). This awareness also brought with it a number of concerns regarding how to protect and maintain one's existence. Following More's (1516) inspiring definition of the idyllic state, entitled "Utopia", where there are no threats to individual existence, Campanella (1602) described a universal monarchical order which provides peace among all citizens. Furthermore, other utopian philosophers, such as, Saint-Simon (1813), Fourier (1829), and Owen (1849), conceptualized an ideal commonwealth and defined socialist forms of "Utopia" (Honderich, 2005).

Hobbes (1651) utilized the concept of "social contract" while establishing the grounds of commonwealth. He defined "social contract" as follows:

"The only way to erect such a common power, as may be able to defend them... , is, to confer all their power and strength upon one man, or upon one assembly of men, that may reduce all their wills, by plurality of voices, unto one will...This is more than consent, or concord; it is a real unity of them all, in one and the same person, made by covenant of every man with every man, in such manner, as if every man should say to every man, I authorize and give up my right of governing

myself, to this man, or to this assembly of men, on this condition, that thou give up thy right to him, and authorize all his actions in like manner (Ibid: 112)”.

Out of the events of the English Revolution (1642-1660), which lead to the execution of Charles I (1649)⁵¹, Hobbes’s work can be seen as a reaction to political crises in his home country of England (Monk, 1992; and, Kow, 2001). Therefore, the idea of social contract is based on consolidating the power of the sovereign and the individuals’ loyalty to it. Individuals must agree on surrendering their liberty to the absolutist power, named “Leviathan”⁵², and correspondingly their security would be provided for in return. On the other hand, Rousseau (1762), as one of the most renowned enlightenment philosophers, emphasized the importance of individuals’ *free will* in the social contract, while ceding their rights to the state. He posited that the social contract was a reciprocal commitment between the state and the individual (Carrin, 2006).

Along the same philosophical thread is the Kantian notion of a civil society (cosmopolitan right) which states that individuals willingly give up their rights (abandon their natural state of savagery) to come together and form a civil society based on shared collective principles of peace and security (Kant, 1795). He referred that, *“The highest task which nature has set for mankind must therefore be that of establishing a society in which freedom under external laws...in other words of establishing a perfectly just civil constitution (Kant, 1995:45)”*. One of the earliest indications behind the concept of the UN and the EU can be found in the political writings of Kant: specifically, his theory of perpetual peace (Russett et al., 1998; and, Howell, 2000).

⁵¹ The English Revolution was launched by Parliamentarians against the Royalists and was ended with the victory of Parliamentarians. Hobbes supported the Royalist argument which emphasized the importance of absolute sovereignty.

⁵² The name of Leviathan was the first to be utilized in the Bible as a sea monster.

In his earlier works, Kant (1995) posited nine propositions⁵³ regarding “the Idea for a Universal History”. Then he adapted these propositions to the foundations for a republican constitution whereby the three principles are: “.... *firstly, the principle of freedom for all members of a society (as men); secondly, the principle of the dependence of everyone upon a single common legislation (as subjects); and thirdly, the principle of legal equality for everyone (as citizens)*” (Ibid: 99). Democracy, economic interdependence, international law and organizations, are the components of the Kantian tripod for perpetual peace (Russett et al., 1998). In order to achieve perpetual peace, this tripod must be adhered to in order to lead to the desired end result of a civil constitution. Kant believed that once such a civil constitution is instituted amongst individuals, society, and then states, only then would there be a high probability of attaining perpetual peace. He adds that, “*the republican constitution is not only pure in its origin; it also offers a prospect of attaining desired result i.e. perpetual peace*” (Ibid: 100). Accordingly, this cosmopolitan view of relations between states has sown the seeds for the modern UN and EU as we have come to know today (Howell, 2004a). Therefore, Kant’s theory of perpetual peace is vital in gaining insight into the present rise of globalisation, the new international order after the end of the Cold War, and the “debate about the role and mandate of the UN, the EU, and other IOs (Kleingeld, 2006).

⁵³ “First proposition: All the natural capacities of a creature are destined sooner or later to be developed completely and in conformity with their end. Second proposition: In man (as the only rational creature on earth), those natural capacities which are directed towards the use of his reason are such that they could be fully developed only in the species, but not individuals. Third proposition: Nature has willed that man should produce entirely by his own initiative everything which goes beyond the mechanical ordering of his animal existence, and that he should not partake of any other happiness or perfection than that which he has procured for himself without instinct and by his own reason. Fourth proposition: The means which nature employs to bring about the development of innate capacities is that of antagonism within society, in so far as this antagonism becomes in the long run the cause of a law governed social order. Fifth proposition: The greatest problem for the human species, the solution of which nature compels him to seek, is that of attaining a civil society which can administer justice universally. Sixth proposition: This problem is both the most difficult and the last to be solved by the human race. Seventh proposition: The problem of establishing a perfect civil constitution is subordinate to the problem of a law governed external relationship with other states and cannot be solved unless the latter is also solved. Eighth proposition: The history of the human race as a whole can be regarded as the realisation of a hidden plan of nature to bring about an internally-and for this purpose also externally-perfect political constitution as the only possible state within which all natural capacities of mankind can be developed completely. Ninth position: A philosophical attempt to work out a universal history of the world in accordance with a plan of nature aimed at a perfect civil union of mankind, must be regarded as possible and even as capable of furthering the purpose of nature itself” (Kant, 1995: 42-51).

The Peace of Westphalia (1648) is another factor which holds an important place on the road to the endgame of providing global security. In addition to its role of consolidating the “nation state” concept, the Peace of Westphalia began to develop the idea of establishing and maintaining universal peace through treaties. After the culmination of the Napoleonic Wars in 1815, Austria, Prussia, Russia and Britain, established the Concert of Europe and at the Congress of Vienna agreed not to alter the newly drawn borders without mutual consent. As a result of their economic-security concerns, they founded the first IO in modern history, the *Central Commission for the Navigation of Rhine*, in 1815. Yet this attempt at reaching a global security regime guaranteed by major power alliances did not live long and was interrupted by the Balkan Wars (1912-1913) and disintegrated with the catastrophe of the First World War (1914-1918). After the First World War, in order to make another attempt at maintaining peace, the League of Nations was established at the Paris Peace Conference. However, this organization did not turn out to be the promised panacea either and could not curb states’ ambitions and outbreak of yet another confrontation, leading to an even greater conflict with the Second World War. Trying to learn from the failure of the League of Nations, which could not prevent the Second World War, once again the victorious states joined forces for the sake of protecting and maintaining the newly earned peace, but this time within a broad-spectrum participation. Hence, the United Nations organization was born and came to hold a central role in the development of IOs.

Today, there are three main types of IOs as a result of this new order: intergovernmental (e.g. UN organizations, WTO, etc.); international non-governmental (INGO) (e.g. Doctors without Borders, World Organization of Scout Movements, etc.); and transnational hybrid organizations (THOs) (e.g. International Labour Organization, International Council for Science, etc.). Intergovernmental organizations are composed of more than three-member nation states and are instituted through an intergovernmental agreement. A permanent secretariat conducts ongoing tasks on behalf of member states. According to the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) Resolution 288 (X) of 27 February 1950, if there is no intergovernmental agreement during the establishment process of an IO, that organization is then referred

to as an INGO. THOs are a mix of INGO and intergovernmental organizations. Missoni (2014: 78) gives a very broad definition of THO:

“THOs are regional or global independent organizations (i.e. with their own stature, legal personality, membership, governance structure, and resources) that include states in their membership, represented by governmental institutions and/or non-profit, single country and/or multi-country organization, with all components having representation and voice in the collective decision making.”

As mentioned above, philosophical conceptualization of IOs has been shaped by historical developments. This historical influence also reflected in IOs' managerial dimension. Nowadays, they have more complex organizational structures, duties and sources of human power, than they have had in the near past. Hence, it requires more attention and sensitivity while managing staff in the context of IOs.

2.3.2 The Motivation of Staff in IOs

Parallel to shifts in philosophical conceptualization of IOs, motivational approaches of IO supervisors have also been changed over time, as more and more, they began to face a diversified cultural workforce. The progress of motivational understanding in IOs has been moulded by works related in multicultural aspects. Especially, after Hofstede's well-known book, "Cultural Consequences", was published in 1980, motivation of multicultural workforces became more popular and scholars began to realize the importance of cultural differences in motivation of people across countries. They mostly quoted Hofstede's "Cultural Consequences" and provided examples from it (Erez and Earley, 1987; Dorfman and Howell, 1988; Oyserman, 1993; Earley, 1994; Newman and Nollen, 1996; Casimir and Keats, 1996; Ozowa et al., 1996; Eylon and Au, 1999; and, Lam et al., 2002). Research regarding motivation of multicultural workforces have mostly developed in the direction of multinational enterprises and international projects. According to the findings of these studies, the most common and most important motivation tools are as follows: empowering staff; establishing challenging projects; instituting good communication; securing jobs; and, providing opportunities for personal development (Dwivedula and Bredillet, 2010; Seiler et al., 2012; Tiwari, 2013; and, Bartsch, et al., 2013).

Conversely, while developing his "cultural dimensions" (as noted in Section 2.2.3.2), Hofstede was inspired by motivational theorists such as Herzberg et al. (1957) and McClelland (1961). Nevertheless, Hofstede was not the only researcher to be influenced by such works, and other motivational theorists, such as, Schwartz (1992), Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1999), and House et al. (2004), utilized McClelland's motivation theory as one of the main sources for their theories while developing other dimensions in their cultural models.

In addition to developing other cultural dimensions, Hofstede (1980) sought to discover the reasons behind the rising popularity of motivation theories of Maslow (1943), Herzberg (1959), McClelland (1961), and Vroom (1964), in the US management philosophy, as Freudian thought never became prevalent. In this pursuit, he evaluated the influence of these motivation theories on different cultural patterns. Sigmund Freud (1930) represented the Austrian middle-class convention: hence Hofstede (1980) explained this unpopularity through making a comparison of Austria and the US on a cultural map which comprised of four dimensions of culture. This study made a connection between motivation theories and culture and explained how they affected each other. Two decades later, Hofstede (2001) revised his previous study and prepared a motivational world map that posited:

“The implication of the different motivational patterns in different countries is that personnel policies aimed at motivating people will have different effects in different countries (their effects may also differ within the same country, for different class of employees” (Hofstede, 2001: 387).

Moreover, Hofstede (1987) investigated McGregor’s (1960) Theory X and Y and inferred that this theory may have been valid in the US but it could not be applied for motivation purposes in Southeast Asia, for the reason that conversely, Southeast Asia represents collectivist (not individualist) and large power distance societies. Unlike the US, Southeast Asia utilizes self-actualization for improvement of its society, and to this effect, Theory X and Y would not be practical for motivating people in this region (Rodrigues, 1996).

Hunt (1981) considered that Freud, Jung, and other European theorists did not gain popularity in the US as motivational theorists. He posited that these European thinkers focused more on theory and could not provide a proper and easy understandable model that could be implemented in different work environments. On the other hand, American theorists such as Maslow, McClelland, and Herzberg, developed extremely practicable and simple models that could be utilized for motivating all kinds of employees. Therefore, American-originated theories were accepted and extended rapidly. In addition, Hunt (1994) conducted research about factors which can motivate

European consultants in a multinational environment and enumerated seven motivation incentives as the result: intellectual challenge, autonomy, variety of works, sense of power, professional service, travel, and stature. Even though these motivators were not discovered specifically for the purposes of IOs, due to their multinational characteristics, they are applicable for this context as well.

According to Morden (1995), American motivation theories evaluated work motivation from a self-interested need of satisfaction. Achievements lead self-actualization through materialistic rewards such as promotion (higher position or stature among other workers) and performance bonus. These motivation tools encourage individualism, and to this effect, highly individualistic countries such as the US accepted these theories as rather applicable to their structures. However, due to their sui-generis structures, IOs do not fit into this classification. They utilize open promotion policies in which options are not only limited to internal employees, but also to outside organizations; any external entity can attain a higher position. In addition, there are certain restrictions on some positions which only members of certain countries can hold (Michelmann, 1978). On the other hand, there are rather strict rules for providing pay increases and bonuses. In this manner, and in lieu of extrinsic motivation, self-actualisation of IO staff developed in line with the axis of intrinsic motivations, such as, serving the greater good of humanity, pleasing feelings of achievement, high level of autonomy, career development, and gaining the respect of others (Jurkiewicz et al., 1998; Leete, 2000; Frontera, 2007; Buelens and Broeck, 2007; Stojanovic, 2008; Tippet and Kluvers, 2009; and, Frey and Gallus, 2015). Conversely, Gallstedt (2003) emphasizes the risks of becoming motivated intrinsically: Individuals can end up placing greater pressure on themselves when they accord inordinate meaning to their endeavours, and in case of any failings, they become devastated. This inner motivation could combine with high stress and the combination may be destructive to the performance of the individual.

The research conducted by the United Nations International Civil Service Commission (UNICSC) (2008) regarding staff motivation – with participation of more than 15,000 UN staff – demonstrates the tendency of IO staff to be attracted towards intrinsic motivation. According to these findings, UN staff generally joined the organization for the opportunity to utilize their skills and competencies, to serve what they assumed to be a good cause, to work in a multicultural environment, to realize professional growth, and the sense of belonging to a global organization. Post-appointment to their new position, most staff stay for the reasons of believing strongly in the goals and objectives of the organization, serving a good cause, working in a multicultural environment, and having the opportunity to use their skills and competencies. On the other hand, 20% of participants considered leaving their organizations and 21% of them had not yet decided about departing. Some of the most mentioned reasons for leaving the organization were, “lacking of opportunities for promotion, professional growth, leadership development programs and using their skills and competencies”.

Motivation of IO staff has generally been accepted in the existing literature as a part of public service motivation (PSM) (Vandenabeele and Ban, 2009; Westover and Taylor, 2010; Perry et al., 2010; Biget et al., 2010; Ritz et al., 2013; and, Scheiwiller, 2013). According to Perry and Hondeghem, (2008: 3): *“PSM focuses on the motives and actions held in public domain that are intended to do good for others and shape the well-being of society”*. Biget (2012) relates socio-political characteristics and cultural background to PSM, and based on his findings, he encourages using PSM in IOs. In his, and those of his colleagues’ added investigations, through testing Schwartz’s (1999) human value concept and PSM levels, they investigate values and motivational patterns of IO staff who come from different cultural backgrounds. According to their findings, there are some regional differences in motivation of staff, but not in their values. General levels of PSM decrease with tenure which does not influence adherence to organizational values (Biget et al., 2013). Scroggins and Benson (2010) make a point of decreasing motivation of older staff in IOs and offer to develop more active human

resource policies in order to prevent losing their effectiveness in the work place; such as expounding the importance of their experiences at the lead.

Due to the importance of achievement feeling, social acceptance by others in the work environment, and nature of intrinsic source of motivation, McClelland's *need of achievement*, Maslow's *need of esteem*, and Deci & Ryan's *self-determination theory* have gained wide popularity for usage in motivational research at IOs. However, motivation has been seen as a complementary element of cross-cultural leadership and PSM literature. Therefore, special motivation tools for staff in IOs have not been developed, and nevertheless, except for these findings, there is no specific research in the existing literature which investigates this topic. It is obvious that there is an emerged need for developing a separate understanding of staff motivation in the context of IOs.

2.3.3 Organizational Culture in IOs

IOs have collective decision-making structures that encourage the participation of their members. Particularly, multilateral discussions related to global concerns cause power struggles among member states. To this effect, negotiations gain more importance during decision-making processes. For example, the UN has a rather complex decision-making process: The General Assembly, as the UN's main deliberative and representative body, takes on decisions about recommendations on peace and security, elections of Security Council and Economic-Social Council members, budget, and admission of new members: with a requirement of two-thirds majority of (193) member states. Other decisions are taken by simple majority. On the other hand, in order to maintain peace and security, the Security Council as an executive organ of the UN takes decisions on substantive issues, with nine affirmative votes out of fifteen members. However, the five permanent members of the Security Council – US, Russia, China, Britain and France – must not utilize their right of veto in these decisions.

IOs' decision-making capacity is rather hindered by attempts to build coalitions of power and ongoing negotiations among member states. Due to IOs' multilateral decision-making system, excessive bureaucracy and slow actions have become some of the main characteristics of their organizational culture (Bauer and Knill, 2007; Biermann and Siebenhuner, 2009; Reinalda, 2013; and, Weiss, 2013). Barnett and Finnemore (2004) defined four main aspects of IO bureaucracies as, hierarchy, continuity, impersonality, and expertise. Unlike most of their colleagues, they posit that due to the multilateral nature of the participation of members, bureaucracy is pretty helpful for developing common organizational values and achieving collective goals.

As the largest IO, the UN holds an important place in works related to organizational cultures of IOs. It deals with different kinds of activities in diverse regions of the world. Therefore, a high level of initiative and autonomy gains special importance in UN's organizational culture. In 1994, the UN adapted some reforms into its

organizational working fundamentals, such as, moving away from a trait-based system to a goal-oriented performance appraisal structure, bringing more flexibility in the recruitment process, achieving gender-balance and equality, and abolishing permanent contracts (and in lieu of this, utilizing three types of contracts instead: a. short term (up to six months), b. fixed term (maximum up to five years), and, c. continuing contracts (as long as organizational requirements and performance is satisfactory) (Salomons, 2004).

The UN staff members are named as international civil servants under five main classifications, based on required qualifications, nature of duty, and levels of responsibility. First of all, are the professional staff: *professional* levels (P-1 to P-5); and two *director* levels (D-1 and D-2). The second classification is *general service* and related categories, such as, administrative, secretarial, and clerical support (G, TC, S, PIA, and LT). Third category is *national professional officers* (A, B, C, D, and E). Fourth is *field service* (FS4, FS5, FS6, and FS7) and fifth is *senior appointments*: Secretary-General (SG), Deputy Secretary-General (DSG), Under-Secretary- Assistant (USG), and Assistant Secretary-General (ASG). The UN Charter Article 101 declares the main principles of employment and service conditions as: providing efficiency, competence, and integrity. In addition, due to the conjoining impact of these three principles, Mathiason (2008) recommends to also include “effectiveness” as a fourth principle.

After analysing the results of interviews with twenty-five UN high managers (D1, D2 and senior managers) and seventeen focus groups, with the participation of UN staff from different departments at all levels, Annan (1999) declared a competence model that is consist in core values, and core and managerial competencies. “Integrity” and “respect for diversity” were defined as the core values of the UN. Communication, teamwork, planning and organizing, accountability, creativity, client orientation, commitment to continuous learning, and technological awareness, were listed as core competencies of the UN. Finally, leadership, vision, empowering others, building trust, managing performance, and judgement/decision-making, were specified as managerial competencies of the UN executive staff.

EU organizations with their supranational characteristics, also hold significant roles in the workings of IOs. Supra-nationality of the EU refers to upper European identity which was constructed by political elites and transcended borders of national states (Cinpoes, 2008; Checkel and Katzenstein, 2009; and, Wodak and Boukala, 2015). Specifically, the enlargement policy of the EU (in 2004) accelerated the process of Europeanization⁵⁴ and prepared the ground for more cultural diversity among staff in EU organizations. Howell (2009) sees Europeanization as an interactive link between the uniformity and diversity in the EU and in his work he places emphasis on the mechanism of Europeanization in relation to globalization vis-à-vis localization.

The EU Commission, as an executive body, represents the supranational identity of the EU through following the interests of the organization, and not its individual member states. There are four main types of figures at the EU Commission: officials, temporary staff, contract staff, and local staff. Understanding the differences between them provides a glimpse into the organizational dynamics of the EU Commission. Since only officials have the right to hold permanent positions, even if other staff members perform similar jobs and have more experience in the field, they cannot possess permanent contracts, and to this effect, officials feel a greater sense of proprietorship of the organizations of the EU (Georgakais, 2013). Moreover, Michelmann (1978) found some interesting results in his research in relation to the organizational culture of EU commissions. Certain positions are reserved for particular nationalities in the Commission of European Communities. This quota application may cause some management problems in the functioning of organizational management. Firstly, even staff who are more qualified, deserve promotions due to limitation of nationality quotas; in lieu of them, less deserved ones may be promoted to higher positions. Secondly, when a supervisor wants to hand out punishments or fire indolent staff, they may put forward the excuse of national discrimination and easily receive support from their powerful compatriots. For this reason, some managers choose not to deal with the problem and instead get rid of problematic staff thorough promoting and transferring

⁵⁴ Europeanization is, *“the transformation of national or regional phenomena into supranational (European) ones through a combination of economic, socio cultural and political forces. Europeanization is a contiguous but secondary process to European integration”* Hryniewiecka (2011: 75).

them to other positions. Then again, surely this approach may harm the fairness system of an organization and the staff may show a tendency to continue and normalize their problematic behaviours due to getting rewarded as a result of those undesired actions.

IO staff have mostly graduated from top universities in the world. This shared level of high educational background can also provide a likeness in their work culture. McLaren (1997: 61) defines this group as cosmopolitan – or people with a worldview (a worldwide perspective) – and believes them to have an orientation which falls under the rubric of global, as opposed to national. He does not see them as representatives of their national experience but rather as part and parcel of an international culture based on loyalty to their IOs (Ibid). The findings of Biget et al. (2013) support the view of McLaren as well. According to their findings, *“IO staff are not a simple representative sample drawn from citizens of their home country”* (Ibid: 279).

IOs have different aims, functions, organizational structures, and identities (Coicaud, 2001), therefore they do not have a monolithic culture that is shared by all such institutions. However, during periods of historical progress as a result of long years of interaction with each other, and when approximating profiles of their staff, they begin to share a rather similar organizational culture which encourages efficiency, competence, respect, integrity and effectiveness, based on a democratic culture.

2.3.4 Leadership in IOs

IOs are seen as an important component of public management. As inevitable consequence of this relationship, the progress in public management literature directly influences the leadership concept in the context of IOs. Specifically, the New Public Management (NPM) approach holds an important place in this development. As a response to the economic crises of the 1970s, dominant capitalist states, such as the US and the UK, began to embrace the economic principles of neo-liberalism⁵⁵, and as a consequence of this policy, while free market economy and international financial organizations gained more power, the role of states became less tangible in the global economy (Haque, 2004). This radical shift in the economic policies of the US and the UK also reflected to their public administration management. Moreover, other states were also rapidly influenced by this development and chose to adapt private sector principles – such as functional rationality, cost-effectiveness, maximization of real and perceived efficiency and productivity – into their public sectors (Skalen, 2004; Williams and Lewis, 2008), and thus an NPM concept was put into practice. IOs such as the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, the WTO, and United Nations Development Programme, supported the globalization of the NPM, especially in developing countries (Haque, 2004). In this context, the concept of “good governance” gained importance and was seen as a complementary part of the NPM approach.

The World Bank was the first entity to utilize the term *good governance*, as a policy lexicon in a report regarding sustainable growth of Sub-Saharan Africa, in 1989 (Doeveren, 2011). According to this report, due to the failure of public organizations, economic development of Sub-Saharan Africa did not culminate into sustainable development and democracy. As a solution, the World Bank recommended to utilize “*the*

⁵⁵ Campbell and Pedersen (2001: 5) define neo-liberalism as: “[A] heterogeneous set of institutions consisting of various ideas, social and economic policies, and ways of organizing political and economic activity...Ideally, it includes formal institutions, such as minimalist welfare-state, taxation, and business regulation programs; flexible labour markets and decentralized capital–labour relations unencumbered by strong unions and collective bargaining; and the absence of barriers to international capital mobility. It includes institutionalized normative principles favouring free-market solutions to economic problems, rather than bargaining or indicative planning, and a dedication to controlling inflation even at the expense of full employment. It includes institutionalized cognitive principles, notably a deep, taken-for-granted belief in Neoclassical economics”.

combination of private sector initiative and market mechanisms with good governance which refers to a public service that is efficient, a judicial system that is reliable and administration that is accountable to its public" (World Bank, 1989: xii). There is no one definition of "good governance", but it can be defined as a public policy which is based on a set of principles, such as, transparency, accountability and participation (Woods, 2000). Doeveren (2011) explicates that four events triggered the rise of good governance in the world: (1) The end of the Cold War through diminishing the support for authoritarian communist and non-communist regimes; (2) Many authoritarian regimes accepted the principles of "good governance" in return for developmental aid; (3) IOs gained more influence in developing and non-developed countries with their support for developmental policies; and, (4) Humanitarian intervention in countries which violate the right of life, such as Rwanda and Somalia, became an obligation.

The definition of good governance has different meanings in deontological and teleological schools of thought. From the deontological perspective, the concept of good governance has moral foundations based on the Kantian notion of categorical imperative⁵⁶. Universal goodwill lays at the heart of this concept that leads to morally right actions. Goodness is not oriented to results but seen as a virtue of being good in every performed act (Howell, 2000). On the other hand, Machiavellian teleological understanding of good governance is rather different than Kantian notions. Here, goodness is dependent on results and the *good* in good governance would imply as long as it keeps the ruler in power. IOs, especially the UN⁵⁷, followed the Kantian approach: while UN organizations were encouraging the settlement of these principles, underdeveloped and developing countries also adapted them into their structures. During his tenure, former UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan placed "good governance" principles at the centre of UN reform movements (Missoni and Alesani, 2014). Annan

⁵⁶ Kant (1964: 24, 29, 32) puts forward three fundamental principles in categorical imperative, as, "a.... Act as though the maxim of your action were to become, through your will, a universal law of nature....b.... Act in such a way as to treat humanity, whether in your own person or in that of anyone else, always as an end and never merely as a means....c.... Act only so that the will could regard itself as giving universal law through its maxim."

⁵⁷ UN utilizes the definition of governance as follows: "...the exercise of political and administrative authority at all levels to manage a country's affairs. It comprises the mechanisms, process and institutions, through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations and mediate their differences (UN Development Program, 1997: 1)".

(1998) sees “good governance” as *“the single most important factor in eradicating poverty and promoting development”* and defines it as *“the rule of law, effective state institutions, transparency and accountability in the management of public affairs, respect for human rights and participation of all citizens in the decisions that affect their lives”* (Annan, 2000: 22). This good-governance-centric reform movement was not only limited to UN organizations, but other IOs also embraced its principles of participation, transparency, accountability, and fairness, in their management philosophy (Ngaire, 1999).

This reform process encourages two leadership types in IOs: First, changes in organizations, strategic vision, innovation, adaptability, encouraging teamwork, building good communications, and sincere relationships with staff, are seen as important values of leadership (These values associate with transformational and charismatic value-based leadership types) (Prewitt et al., 201; and, Thorn, 2012); Second, good governance principles strengthen more participatory management approaches which lead democratic leadership types for IO managers (Ngaire, 1999).

Furthermore, cultural aspect is also an important element of leadership in IOs because leadership qualities are not isolated from the society and nation in which the leader originates from. Cultural characteristics of leader reflect on the relationship of leaders and followers (Hofstede, 1980). In this century, management of a multicultural workforce has mostly been seen as a complementary component of cross-cultural leadership literature. Herein, the GLOBE study gains more importance because it aims to develop an ILT that is based on cross-cultural understandings with large-scale research projects. Thanks to its framework, which takes into consideration different cultural backgrounds, the findings of this research may seem pretty applicable in the context of IOs.

Likewise, Chevrier (2003) examines cross-cultural management in multinational project groups by conducting a comparative study of three international project groupings. One of the important findings of her research was that tolerance and self-

control could contribute to multinational team effectiveness. Another relevant finding of her study was that if team members were well acquainted with each other, they could better cope with existing cultural differences. Finally, she pointed out that if the leaders of an international team at question could not succeed in managing different cultural groups, they could instead build a common team culture. According to Lewis (2006), team culture must be based on building mutual trust in an international group, because trust is a universal term that is current in all cultures and absence of it makes all employees feel unmotivated in their work environment.

In order to manage cultural diversity effectively, Earley and Ang (2003) developed the concept of *cultural intelligence*. Earley (2002: 274) defined cultural intelligence as “a person’s capability to adapt effectively to new cultural contexts and it has both process and content features”. There are three dimensions in cultural intelligence: a. Cognitive (self-knowledge of understanding cultural similarities and differences) and Meta-cognitive (self-awareness of interactions with different cultures); b. Motivational (self-capacity and drive of adaptation to new cultural circumstances); and, c. Behavioural (self-capacity of showing verbal and non-verbal behaviours during interaction with different cultures). Many scholars accepted cultural intelligence as an inseparable part of cross-cultural leadership and management (Johnson et al., 2006; Templer et al., 2006; Ang et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2012; Morrell et al., 2013; and, Christiansen and Sezerel, 2013). Additionally, because of their capacity of understanding different cultures, it may be assumed that leaders who have high cultural intelligence may manage their team members, or staff, in their IOs more effectively.

2.3.5 Conclusion

Research topic literature review section investigates the emergence and progress of philosophical conceptions of IOs, and the reflection of grand theories, such as, motivation, culture, and leadership, on practice. Critical theory has been utilized as the paradigm of inquiry in this research. The researcher believes that the theories of motivation, culture, and leadership issues in IOs, have been reformatting through the changes found in society and history. Therefore, while investigating the research topic's literature review, historical/social changes and their influences have been taken into consideration, in this section. This approach provides a non-linear understanding of the research.

The results of this chapter demonstrate the necessity and importance of the current thesis. Because, so far, motivation of IO staff have been accepted as a complementary part of either cross-cultural leadership or PSM. But IOs have their own organizational dynamics which are more different than public and private sector organizations, and surprisingly, there are a few studies on motivation concept regarding IOs, in the existing literature. To this effect, it is obvious that there is a need to develop a separate motivational understanding for IOs. The findings of this research will meet this need and will be a guide and a reference point for further research concerning motivation concept in the context of IOs.

CHAPTER 3

THEORY

3.1 Introduction

Theory has played a fundamental role in the history of social science development. Many theories change the direction of social science and set it a new path based on their hypotheses and perspectives. A scientific theory was defined in the book of Oxford Companion to Philosophy, as: *“An attempt to bind together in a systematic fashion the knowledge that one has of some particular aspect of the world of experience”* (Honderich, 1995: 870).

Theory, discovery, development or meta-theorizing, are important components of social science research. Theory develops pluralism, alternative choices and scenarios, discussion and communication, and increases awareness and understanding in a social science research. Different types of theory in terms of theory development, ideational formulation, normativism, and levels of theory (grand, meso and theoretical framework) are investigated in researches (Howell, 2013). The typology of theory in social science is shown in Figure 3.1.

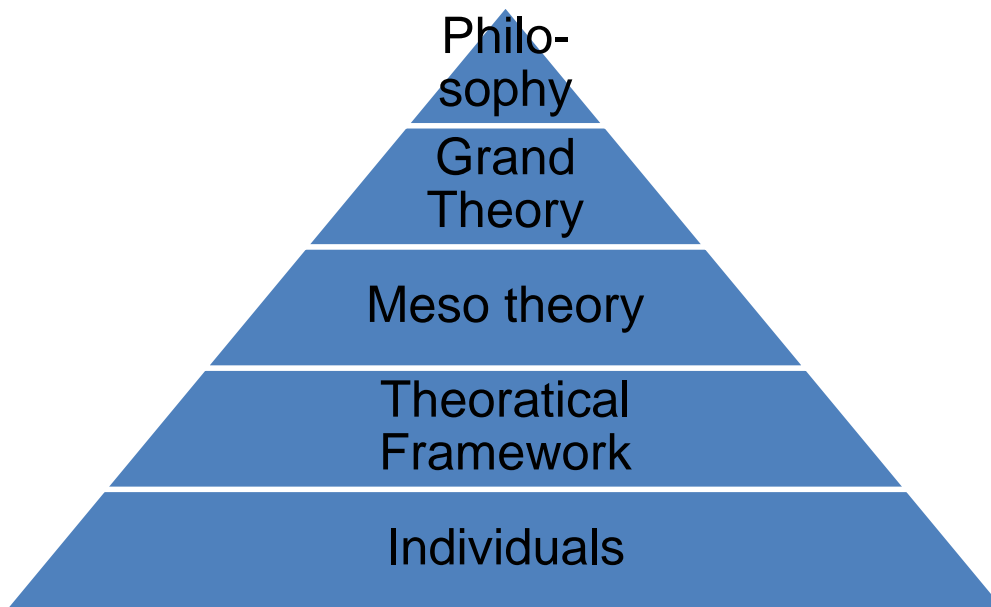


Figure 3.1: Typology of Theory (Ibid)

Individual theories mostly focus on cognition, behaviour, learning, personality, and interpersonal interactions (Tavallaei and Talib, 2010) through considering empirical phenomena in relation to non-empirical ones. Theoretical framework utilizes experience in combination with selves or the individual researcher's interpretive collation and synthesis between theory and practice. Meso-theory connects grand theory and theoretical framework. Grand theory gives a general idea about the subject. Philosophy requires total abstraction and limited relationships with practice (Howell, 2013).

In order to understand the roots of staff motivation in the context of IOs, grand theories are divided into three categories as regards this research: motivation, culture and leadership. The most referenced and best known theories in these three categories have been examined as grand theories in Section 2.2., "Theoretical Literature Review". According to the results of this evaluation: the GLOBE study, ILT, Schein's culture and leadership theory, and McClelland motivation theory will be used as meso theories in this research. Their correlation to each other is demonstrated in Figure 3.2.

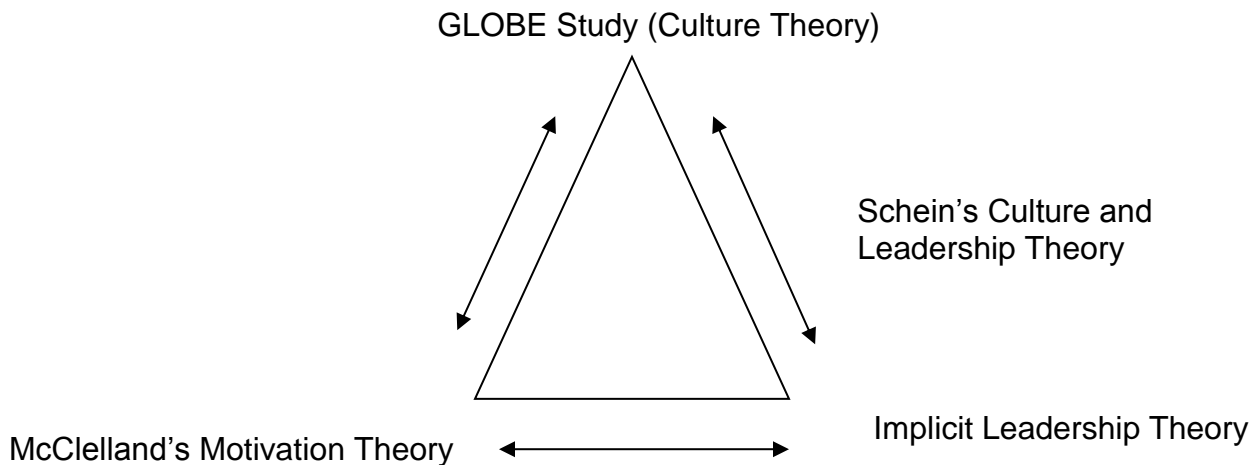


Figure 3.2: The Relationship of Meso Theories

3.2 The GLOBE Study

The GLOBE research project examines the relationship of leadership, organizational culture, and societal culture. The GLOBE is one of the largest scaled multinational studies conducted from (62) cultures and based on a survey of (17,300) middle managers in (950) organizations (Chhokar et. al, 2007). Its theoretical framework is comprised of ILT (Lord and Maher, 1991), value/belief theory of culture (Hofstede, 1980), implicit motivation theory (McClelland, 1985a), and structural contingency theory of organizational form and effectiveness (Donaldson, 1993; and, Hickson et al., 1974) (House et. al., 1999).

The GLOBE study developed nine dimensions for evaluating cultural differentiation: a. PD demonstrates the extent of a community's acceptance and endorsement of authority, power differences, and status privileges (House et al., 2004); b. UA investigates "the extent to which ambiguous situations are threatening to individuals, to which rules and order are preferred, and to which uncertainty is tolerated in a society" (Ibid: 602); c. IC encourages organizational and institutional actions; d. IGC stimulates individuals' pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations or families (Ibid); e. FO fosters future-oriented behaviours, like delaying gratification, planning, and investing in the future (House et al., 1999); f. Assertiveness investigates the characteristics of being assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in social relationships (House et al., 2004); g. GE tries to minimize gender inequality and supports gender equality; h. HO emphasizes the importance of being fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind to others; and, i. PO encourages group members' performance improvement and excellence (Ibid).

Moreover, the GLOBE study developed its own culturally endorsed ILT theory that is composed of six leadership dimensions: a. the charismatic/value-based⁵⁸; b. the team-oriented⁵⁹; c. the participative⁶⁰; d. the humane-oriented⁶¹; e. the autonomous⁶²; and, f. the self-protective⁶³ (and group-protective) (House et al., 2004). The GLOBE study is separated from other models with a direct link between culture and leadership. In addition, it is the newest model amongst them and has brought a more holistic approach to cultural diversity research with its profound and developed dimensions. Through its vast multinational aspects, profound theoretical structure, nine dimensions of cultural theory, and links between leadership, culture and motivation, the GLOBE study will be used as a cultural meso theory for the research at hand.

3.3. McClelland's Motivation Theory

McClelland based his human motivation theory on three needs: achievement, affiliation, and power, which were derived from the work of Henry Murray⁶⁴ (1938). McClelland et al. (1958: 181) defined the achievement need as follows:

“...success in competition with some standard of excellence. That is, the goal of some individual in the story is to be successful in terms of competition with some standard of excellence. The individual may fail to achieve this goal, but the concern over competition with a standard of excellence still enables one to identify the goal sought as an achievement goal. This, then, is our generic definition of need Achievement.”

⁵⁸ The charismatic/value-based leadership puts an emphasis on achieving high standards, being assertiveness, doing innovation and inspiring people around a vision (House et al., 2004).

⁵⁹ The team-oriented leadership encourages values of being proud of, showing loyalty, and doing collaboration among team members (Ibid).

⁶⁰ The participative leadership endorses sharing power in the process of decision-making and implementation; and values delegation and equality in the organization (Ibid).

⁶¹ The humane-oriented leadership encourages values of being compassionate, generous, patient and supportive, and concerning with others' well-being (Ibid).

⁶² The autonomous leadership values being independent, individualistic, and self-centric (Ibid).

⁶³ The self-protective leadership stresses being procedural, status-conscious, and 'face-saving' behaviours; and being committed to others' safety and security (Ibid).

⁶⁴ Murray (1938) divided needs into two main categories: a. primary needs have more fundamental, and biological drives such as oxygen, water, food and urination; b. secondary or psychogenic needs are based on psychological needs and wishes, such as achievement, affiliation, aggression, construction, counteraction, deference, exhibition, order, play, power, recognition and rejection.

The need of achievement implies doing something better. In order to be clearer about achievement needs' definition, McClelland offered using the term, "efficiency motive" instead of "achievement motive" (McClelland, 1985a; and, McClelland and Koestner, 1992). The definition of achievement (Maehr, 1974) and the relative importance of it vary in different cultures (McClelland and Koestner, 1992), but achievement need itself is common among all individuals and across all cultures (McClelland, 1961 and 1985a).

McClelland and his colleagues (1953) utilized "Thematic Apperception Test" (TAT)⁶⁵ to measure the levels of individual achievement motivation through gathered participants' imaginative stories about picture stimuli. After they had coded these stories, they scored levels of achievement with a coding system (Engeser, Rheinberg and Moller, 2009). While analysing data, McClelland evaluated achievement need from the perspective of being successful (McClelland et al., 1949; French, 1955; and, McClelland et al., 1953). However, Atkinson (1958) focused on the negative part of achievement and tested the impact of fear of failure. Thus, he developed a "Resultant Achievement Motivation Score" which combined the impact of positive and negative aspects of achievement need. To this effect, subsequent studies gave importance to both aspects of this need (Knowles, 1969; Revelle and Michaels, 1976; Miron and McClelland, 1979; Weiner, 1979 and 1985; Sagie and Elizer, 1999; Trash and Elliot, 2002; and, Moore, Grabsch and Rotter, 2010).

McClelland (1961) measured achievement levels among managers and professionals in different countries and under various contexts. He mainly classified levels of need as *high* and *low*. Some of the main characteristics of high achievement need people are wishing to know if an act is useful while solving a problem (McClelland, 1978), being determined to work hard on the task no matter the circumstance

⁶⁵ Heckhausen (1967) posited three main tactics to reach motivational potential differences in TAT: Firstly, the participants must not be informed about the true aim of the research; Secondly, the inner motives such as experience and behaviour must be placed into fantasy stories where they can be easily recognized; and, Finally, TAT must allow the progress of individual and environmental relationships. However, here an ethical question emerges: if the first step is followed, how a rigorous research can be conducted?

(McClelland, 1985b), and taking moderate risks (McClelland, 1961). Contrary of these characteristics stands for low achievement need.

The second fundamental need is “Affiliation”, which defined shortly, is the need to be with other people. Atkinson et al. (1954:407) provided a broader definition: “...*the concern over establishing, maintaining, or restoring a positive, affective relationship with another person or persons.*” Affiliation need is very similar to Maslow’s love, and Alderfer’s relatedness needs. The characteristics of high affiliation need are: preferring friends rather than experts as work-partners (French, 1956); spending more time while interacting with other people (Koestner and McClelland, 1992); performing better on tasks when “affiliative” incentives are present; having desire to maintain interpersonal networks; becoming more cooperative; demonstrating the wish to conform to others; avoiding conflict; spending more time with subordinates; and having fear of disapproval from other people (McClelland, 1985a).

Power need is related to having an impact on others (Winter, 1992). It is to be strong and influential towards others, not to show dictatorial behaviour (McClelland and Burnham, 2003). People high in the need for power usually take extreme risks, aim at impossibly high goals (McClelland and Watson 1973), seek to build alliances with others (Winter, 1992), desire to control events (McClelland, 1992) and the environment, and tend to become more interested in collecting prestige symbols (McClelland, 1985a; Winter, 1992). They become more successful leaders when they combine positive behaviour attitudes and task-oriented manners in a group setting (McClelland, 1985a).

McClelland developed an empirical relation between motivational subjects in cultural models and national events (Boyatzis, 2000). He concludes that different people may be motivated differently (McClelland, 1985b). Moreover, there is a direct link between human motivation theory and the GLOBE study. Therefore, as a motivational meso theory, McClelland human motivation theory shall be used in this research.

3.4. Implicit Leadership Theory (ILT)

The origin of ILT finds roots in Implicit Personality Theory (IPT). Bruner and Tagiuri (1954) were first to use the term for describing inferential relationship among individual traits (Scheider, 1973). Later, Norman and Goldberg (1966: 681) referred that *“Multiple-factor patterns based on ratings of personality traits are not, in themselves, sufficient grounds on which to infer anything about the personality structure of the rates...Multiple-factor structure can be obtained solely as a result of the shared “IPT” of the raters”*. While investigating preconceptions of leadership variables patterning, Eden and Leviatan (1975) utilized ILT in place of IPT. Nonetheless, ILT gained its popularity in today’s context definition thanks to the work of Lord and Maher (1991).

ILT tries to explain leadership attributions and perceptions (Lord, Foti and Philips, 1982; Lord, Foti and De Vader, 1984; Lord and Maher, 1991; Offermann, Kennedy & Wirtz, 1994; and, Hartog et. al, 1999). In order to distinguish different types of leadership, individuals have implicit theories regarding attributes and behaviours of leadership. ILT provides for individuals to make social categorizations between leaders and non-leaders (Staeheli, 2003). Individuals have an ideal type of leadership in their mind and this idealization type of leadership may show similarities in societies, but due to impact of different factors, such as, culture, social environment, and individual characteristics, the ideal type of leadership may vary in variant societies (Lord and Maher, 1991).

Offerman et al. (2004) defined three types of leadership in ILT: a. leader, b. effective leader, and, c. supervisor. In order to differentiate these types, they developed eight distinct factors: sensitivity, dedication, tyranny, charisma, attractiveness, masculinity, intelligence and strength. Among these factors, sensitivity, charisma, dedication, intelligence and strength are accepted as positive traits. The main difference between types of leadership is that a supervisor has less of these positive attributes than the other two types. On the other hand, leader and supervisor show more tendencies towards tyranny than effective leader. The GLOBE study also utilizes some of these

traits while defining effective leadership: charisma, team orientation, and participativeness are accepted as the main characteristics of effective leadership (Nolley and Ayman, 2005).

ILT categorizes leadership types with a cognitive structure that is based on social understanding and individual traits (Levy, 1999; and, Uhl-Bien, 2005). These understandings and traits are mainly shaped by the culture and previous experiences of leader and followers (Epitropaki et al., 2013). The reason for placing culture in the centre of the leadership theory is that it makes ILT more accepted as one of the meso theories of this research.

3.5. Schein's Culture and Leadership Theory

Schein (2004) sees culture as a living organism whose dynamics are nourished by mutual interactions of individuals, leadership behaviour, set of rules, structures, and norms of a society. Vice versa, this dynamic process of culture is also the core of leadership. To this effect, leadership and culture are seen inseparable from each other as Schein's (2004) metaphor states: they are two sides of the same coin. Hereby, in place of reviewing general leadership concepts, he chooses to focus specifically on how leadership influenced the creation and management of culture. According to him, culture and leadership have a reflexive relation. Firstly, leaders create culture through defining and imposing their own values and beliefs. Then, if followers accept and embrace these values, they become the whole groups' values and beliefs. For next generations, when the group seeks out a leader, members of the group define leadership on the axis of these values and beliefs (Ibid). He also emphasizes the importance of a history of shared experience while creating a common culture in a large organization.

Schein described three culture levels: a. Artifacts, b. Espoused Values, and, c. Basic Underlying Assumptions. Due to the attribute of shared basic assumptions of leader, culture emerged at visible artifacts and shared espoused value levels (Ibid). The GLOBE study as one of the other meso theories also utilized Schein's culture concept and evaluated culture as the product of society's common experimentations (Oz, 2009).

With its dynamic process between culture and leadership, Schein's theory connects the two main grand theories and demonstrates ongoing relations between culture and leadership. Therefore, it is utilized as one of the meso theories in the research.

3.6. Conclusion

Staff motivation in the context of IOs is a complex phenomenon that is based on the interactions of different theories. First of all, both leaders and followers come from different nationalities and work in a multicultural setting. As a result, understanding national and organizational culture has gained more importance. Herein, the GLOBE study has clarified national culture aspect through its nine dimensions and has brought a link between leadership, culture and motivation. Likewise, in order to understand the organizational culture aspect, Schein's model, with its three layers and connection of culture and leadership theories, has been preferred as a meso theory.

Leadership is another determining factor that shapes staff motivation. Without understanding leadership theories and current approaches of leaders in IOs, developing a motivational theoretical framework will not assist with the practice of staff management. Therefore, leadership and its interactions with motivation, culture and power, must be investigated separately. Herein, ILT with its cognitive structure that is based on social understanding, individual traits, and cultural-centric understanding, has been chosen as another of the meso theories of this research. In order to understand motivation aspect, McClelland need of motivation theory has brought a deeper understanding with its three main needs of affiliation, achievement and power. To this effect, it has been chosen as a meso theory as well.

CHAPTER 4

Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

After clarifying a gap in the existing literature, related to grand theories and research topic found in the previous chapter, this chapter aims to highlight how research strategy is constructed and developed through ontology, epistemology and methodology. It begins with a research design framework which shows how the research process is guided. Afterwards, the philosophical perspective related to the research topic is identified and the ontological and epistemological positions in relation to the chosen paradigms of inquiry (also known as “historical realism”) are clarified. Additionally, different methodological approaches are investigated, and finally, in the last section of the chapter, the appropriate methodology for the research area is discussed.

4.2 Qualitative Research Design

Research design illustrates interactions of the main research components in social science which investigates ideas and activities that are difficult to observe or interpret. As regards specific social science subjects, anthropology, psychology and political science, influence the writing of this thesis, as stimuli of multicultural workforces in relation to culture, motivation, and leadership grand theories. Because concept of modern culture emerged through anthropological studies in the early 19th Century, cultural research investigates and explains human behaviour (Fox, 1985).

Until the nineteenth century, psychology was seen as a special field within philosophy. Since the first half of the twentieth century, in parallel with an increased rate of institutionalization at universities, it has begun to be seen as an independent science (Masterson, 2008). Particularly after the 1930s, works of Freud (1930), Mayo (1933),

and Maslow (1943), regarding motivation, have taken a prominent place in the literature of psychology.

Political Science had traditionally been chiefly focused on purpose, character, and organization of states. In the 19th Century, tradition was extended borne out of the nascence of new political institutions in most Western European countries, and the US (Blondel, 1985). Since the 20th Century, especially parallel to the development of this new understanding of political science, leadership has become an important arena in the political science discipline.

Social Science is an important concept for exploring different aspects of human society (Dahrendorf, 1985). Then again, while exploring different variables related to human interaction, such as, culture, motivation, and leadership, it is very difficult to measure and quantify them. The reason for this is that the nature of exploratory research is based on discovering new phenomena which requires a deeper understanding and aptitude. Denzin and Lincoln (2005: 8) make a well-defined distinction between qualitative and quantitative research:

“The word qualitative implies an emphasis on the qualities of entities and on process and meanings that are not experimentally examined or measured in terms of quantity, amount, intensity or frequency. Qualitative research stresses the socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied and the situational constraints that shape inquiry. Such researchers emphasize the value-laden of inquiry. They seek answers to questions that stress how social experience is created and given meaning. In contrast, quantitative studies emphasize the measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables, not process.”

To sum up, interpretation and making sense of what has been observed gains more importance in a qualitative research (Dundon and Ryan, 2010; Jackson, 2012). Therefore, this researcher believes that qualitative research design provides a better guidance to the social science research process when dealing with cultural issues such as values, symbols, rituals and ideas. Qualitative research requires a broader and less

restrictive concept of design than the more traditional perspectives⁶⁶. The components of research affect and are affected by each other (Maxwell, 2009).

The reflection of interactive relationship can also be seen in the researcher's reasoning. There is a constant back and forth between inductive and deductive reasoning throughout the process. As regards this last point, while the theoretical part of the research leans heavily on a deductive understanding, its empirical portion is mainly influenced by an inductive one. The *abductive approach*⁶⁷ combines both deductive and inductive methodologies. It provides more flexibility vis-à-vis developing new knowledge (Dubois and Gadde, 2002; and, Mirza et al., 2014), and especially better interaction among research components, such as, philosophical perspective, ontological and epistemological positions, paradigms of inquiry, literature reviews, theory, methodology, methods, and rigour. Hence, in this study the researcher utilizes an abductive reasoning process. Lastly, the model of research design and its adaption to this thesis are shown in *Figure 4.1* and *Table 4.1*.

⁶⁶ Traditional research design has two main approaches: First is using fixed, standard arrangements of research conditions and methods with their own coherence and logic, such as randomized, double-blind experiment, or an interrupted time series design. The second design is “a *logical progression of stages or tasks, from problem formulation to the generation of conclusions or theory that are necessary in planning or carrying out a study*” (Maxwell, 2009: 214).

⁶⁷ The term *abduction* was coined in the translation of the Aristotelian Apagoge by Julius Pacius in 1597. However, it was Peirce (1931) that for the first time introduced abduction as a type of logical reasoning, by combining a diverse inference pattern with the name of ‘hypothesis’ (Reichert, 2004). According to Peirce (1955: 151): “*The first starting of a hypothesis and the entertaining of it, whether as a simple interrogation or with any degree of confidence, is an inferential step which I propose to call abduction...This will include a preference for any one hypothesis over others which would equally explain the facts, so long as this preference is not based upon any previous knowledge bearing upon the truth of the hypotheses, nor on any testing of any of the hypotheses, after having admitted them on probation.*”



Figure 4.1: The Model of Research Design

Research Topic	The Impact of Culture, Leadership, and Power, on Staff Motivation in the Context of International Organizations.
Research Question	“How can supervisors motivate their staff in the context of IOs?”
Research Objective	The main research objective is to investigate the impact of culture, leadership, and power, on staff motivation in selected IOs and develop a theoretical framework to assist with the practice of staff motivation.
Research Type	Qualitative, explorative and abductive research.
Philosophical Perspective	Phenomenology.
Research Ontology	Reality is shaped by economic, social, political, cultural and historical developments.
Research Epistemology	Researcher and research subject are linked and personal values of researcher influence the inquiry.
Paradigm of Inquiry	Critical theory.
Literature Review	Firstly, literature review chapter is divided into two main parts, as theory and research topic. Then, grand theories – motivation, culture and leadership – have been investigated from historical development perspective in the theory literature review section. On the other hand, their reflections on the empirical area have been investigated in the research topic literature review.
Meso Theories	GLOBE Study, ILT, McClelland Motivation Theory, and Schein Culture Concept.
Methodology	Critical Ethnography.
Methods	Primary data: Semi-structured interviews, focus groups and observations. Secondary data: Books, journals, articles, conference papers, reports and e-resources.
Rigour and Ethical Considerations	Trustworthiness and reflexivity.

Table 4.1: The Research Design

4.3 Philosophical Perspective

This research seeks to understand and interpret the concepts of motivation, culture, leadership, power and their interactions with each other. Therefore, interpretation and comprehension are more important than quantifying, in this research. Phenomenology rejects the empiricist perspective (Schwandt, 2001) and utilizes a subjectivist approach (Creswell, 2013). It develops an interaction between mind and the world and interprets the distinctions between the internal and external world as well as levels of objectivity and subjectivity (Howell, 2013). Phenomenologists believe that 'being-in-the-world' improves the understanding of experiences and the meaning of the subject and the object (Howell, 2004b). There are three main approaches in phenomenology: Husserl's transcendental phenomenology; Heidegger's hermeneutical phenomenology; and Merleau-Ponty's idea of perception.

Husserl (1859-1938) developed methods for the study of conscious experience in order to overcome objectivism's limitations. Husserl's transcendental phenomenology is derived from the concept of "intentionality" (Moustakas, 1994). McIntyre and Smith (1989: 147) defined intentionality from a philosophical perspective: *"A characteristic feature of our mental states and experiences, especially evident in what we commonly call being 'conscious' or 'aware'."* Husserl gave importance to the intentionality of consciousness relating to other objects, including ordinary things and imaginary creations (Wertz et al., 2011). Intentionality seeks the relationship between subject and object through background, content, act and horizon (Howell, 2013), and investigates how we experience objects (McIntyre and Smith, 1989).

Heidegger (1889-1976) emphasized the necessity of interpretation when studying social beings and questioned the very meaning of *being* from the concept of Dasein (Howell, 2013). Heidegger (1994: 78) defined Dasein as "an entity which in its very being comports itself understanding toward that being". He used a slightly different form of intentionality. He criticized Husserl's transcendental phenomenology as being too subjective and developed his 'hermeneutic phenomenology' which discusses *meaning's* direct link with time. *"Being"* is systematic, historical and temporal (Howell, 2004b). Caputo (1999: 225) states that,

“Hermeneutic phenomenology makes explicit the implicit clues that organize understanding, identifying the horizon of Being that allows entities to appear as they are, and then explicates the implicit clue around which that horizon is organized and by which it is nourished, which is the “meaning”, of the Being of those entities.”

Merleau-Ponty (1907-1961) questioned science’s capacity for providing humanity with a complete picture of itself vis-à-vis a world picture. He desired to use knowledge without limits and identified inquiries that do not begin with positivist methods (Howell, 2013). Merleau-Ponty distinguishes his philosophy from Heidegger’s through the concept of “Being”. According to Merleau-Ponty: *“Being can be grasped only in deviation from beings and their order, as a “wild being” which cannot be exhausted by any culture”* (Waldenfels, 1999: 289). He defines phenomenology as the study of essence which seeks to find out definitions of consciousness or perception. He brings back essence into existence and identifies a world that already exists prior to reflection and has an inalienable presence (Howell, 2013).

Phenomenology provides a general comprehension that demonstrates the relationship between the mind and the world. Heidegger’s phenomenology mostly influences the researcher’s philosophical stance through providing a link with time and history. What’s more, Habermas (1974), with his desire to reconstruct the formative process of the human species’ phenomenological self-reflection by expanding practical self-understanding of social groups, and Honneth (2004), with the supporting idea of practising shared values in groups, contribute to the philosophical stance of the researcher.

Finally, stemming from ontological, epistemological and methodological concerns, the research philosophical perspective leans heavily on “phenomenology”, by using critical theory. Heidegger as a phenomenologist, and Habermas and Honneth with their understandings of critical theory paradigm, have an important influence on the researcher’s philosophical stance.

4.4 Paradigms of Inquiry

Kuhn (1970) defines a *paradigm* as a mean of sharing between members of a scientific community. As the paradigm manages to solve the problem it defines, science marches forward and makes tremendous progress. Paradigms of inquiry are the philosophical stance of the researcher that show how his inquiry is designed in the research process (Howell, 2013). Lincoln and Guba (2000) categorize types of paradigm of inquiry as: positivism⁶⁸, post-positivism⁶⁹, critical theory, constructivist⁷⁰, and participatory⁷¹. They can be distinguished through their ontology, epistemology, and methodology. These paradigms of inquiry ensure different interpretations on theory. Positivism and post-positivism see theory as an indication or statement of relationships between abstracted ideas with empirical observations that identify hypotheses via reliable tests (Howell, 2013). Alternatively, in order to emphasize the connection between

⁶⁸ August Comtè presented *positivism* in the middle of the 19th Century. His philosophical stance was affected by empiricism and naturalism (Schwandt, 2001; and, Honderich, 2005). He implemented the rules of natural science to the context of social science. For positivists, reality exists and can be driven by immutable laws and mechanisms (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Reality can be wholly understood and discovered. Also, the ontological perspective of positivism is referred to as “Naïve Realism”. Positivism reveals dualist and objectivist approach epistemologically. The investigator and investigated object are totally independent from each other. Investigator abstains from affecting the investigation or being affected by it (Ibid).

⁶⁹ Popper (2002) posited that due to immutable laws, theory cannot march ahead and develop itself. In order to provide developments in theory, he offered falsifying *a priori* suppositions. Falsification has rules which determine under which circumstances a system is to be regarded as falsified. A theory can only be falsified when basic statements contradict it (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Post-positivism evaluates reality from the critical perspective. It is referred to as “critical realism” (Sayer, 1992; and, Easton, 2010). Reality exists in post-positivism, but due to insufficient human intellectual mechanism and the fundamentally intractable nature of phenomena, humans cannot totally grasp *bona fide* reality and instead only understand it imperfectly and probabilistically (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

⁷⁰ Constructivism seeks to understand how humans interpret or construct something in social, linguistic and historical contexts (Schwandt, 2001). Similar to critical theory, the interpretation of theory in constructivism is shaped by researchers’ experiences, views and background (Creswell, 2013; Smith et al., 2012; and, Howell and Annansingh, 2013). Constructivism has relativist realism; realities are constructed through shared construction of social and cultural factors (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). Schwandt (2000) classified constructivism as, *strong* and *weak*. The main difference between these two types is rooted in their epistemological and ontological stances. The epistemology of strong constructivism is very similar to that of critical theory: such as being *transactional* and *subjectivist* while creating knowledge through interaction of researcher and respondents; but different from critical theory, strong constructivism creates and develops findings in the investigation process. Results are reached through consensus and individual constructions apropos those of the investigator (Howell and Annansingh, 2013). Moreover, reality is shaped by local construction in relation to strong constructivism. On the other hand, weak constructivism highlights ideological and political values (Longino, 1993; House, 1996; and, Schwandt 2000), and its epistemology and ontology denote critical theory.

⁷¹ Heron and Reason (1997) added participatory paradigm to Guba and Lincoln’s categorization of paradigms of inquiry. Mind and primordial reality (cosmos) co-create the world together and reality is the result of interaction of cosmos and mind. Participatory paradigm uses subjective and objective reality: “Cosmos is known as a subjectively articulated world; whose objectivity is relative to how it is shaped by the knower. But, this is not all, its objectivity is also relative to how it is inter-subjectively shaped” (Ibid: 279). The epistemology of participatory requires critical subjectivity which is formed with experimental, presentational, propositional and practical knowing. Practical and theoretical knowledge co-create findings in the becoming context (Ibid).

interpretation and the phenomenon under investigation, critical theory, constructivist and participatory paradigms, use interpretive perspectives of theory (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). Paradigms of inquiry, methodology and method, are not only related and affect each other in the research process, but also develop the rigour of research thorough reliability, validity, generalization in positivism and trustworthiness, validity, and reflexivity in phenomenology.

4.5 Paradigms of Inquiry for this Research

The Institute for Social Research of Frankfurt University developed a philosophical and sociological paradigm which was labelled, "Critical Theory" (Honderich, 2005). Critical theory can be defined as combination of interpretive approaches and interests which critically dissect social realities (Alvesson and Skoldberg, 2009).

Marx (1818-1883), Weber (1864-1920), Horkheimer (1895-1973), Marcuse (1898-1979), Fromm (1900-1980), and Adorno (1901-1969) are considered as the primary architects of Critical Theory. These philosophers are also acknowledged as the first generation of Critical Theorists. However, they did not reach a consensus about social investigation and criticism (Rush, 2004). Capitalism has had a huge effect on development of critical theory. For instance, Marxism emerged from critiques of capitalism (Kincheloe and Tobin, 2009), and Marx utilized both a materialist conception of history⁷² and a critique of capitalism in his dialectic understanding⁷³ (Ng, 2015). In addition, Weber (1930) brought religious and social critiques to capitalism.

Horkheimer (1972) inferred that paradigms of positivism and post-positivism cannot bring an in-depth understanding to social research. In order to understand the dynamics of social phenomena, a researcher should put on lenses of critical theory. Horkheimer was influenced by Marx's social stratification theory⁷⁴ and did not see critical theory as only a research approach, but believed that it could also provide a helping hand in the dissolution of social inequalities found in society.

⁷² Materialist conception of history investigates the main sources of major social developments and changes in the society through utilizing social conscious mediation of natural and social life's reproduction (Ng, 2015). According to this approach, "human evolution onwards from one determinate historical form and productive mode to another" (Horn, 2013: 496).

⁷³ Marx (1967: 14) differentiated his dialectic understanding from Hegel by following remarks: *"My dialectic method is not only different from the Hegelian, but is its direct opposite. To Hegel, the life process of the human brain, i.e., the process of thinking, which, under the name of 'the Idea,' he even transforms into an independent subject, is the demiurgeous of the real world, and the real world is only the external, phenomenal form of 'the Idea.' With me, on the contrary, the ideal is nothing else than the material world reflected by the human mind, and translated into forms of thought". Afterwards, he defined dialectics materialism as follows: "In its rational form it is a scandal and abomination to bourgeois Dom and its doctrinaire professors, because it includes in its comprehension and affirmative recognition of the existing state of things, at the same time also, the recognition of the negation of that state, of its inevitable breaking up; because it regards every historically developed social form as in fluid movement, and therefore takes into account its transient nature not less than its momentary existence; because it lets nothing impose upon it, and is in its essence critical and revolutionary."* Marx's dialectic understanding is based on economic struggle between different classes of society. The clash of opposites such as thesis (industrial entrepreneurs) and anti-thesis (proletariat) leads synthesis as communism.

⁷⁴ Marx's class form of social stratification is based on inequality in economic welfare of members of a capitalist society.

Marcuse (1964) was influenced by Marx's alienation concept and saw the capitalist system as the main cause of a uniform society. He also criticized classical research approaches that utilize knowledge to find universally accepted truths. According to his viewpoint, positivist research approaches also serve standardization of societies, hence, social research should focus on understanding reasons for change in society over periods of time.

Adorno (1976) also highlighted the role of history in shaping ontological understandings. According to his research, in order to understand the current cultural and political aspects of society, historical changes should be taken into consideration as well. However, the interpretation of historical changes is not only limited to past and present situations, but also relates to further developments in a timeline.

After the First World War, as a reaction to the rise of totalitarian ideologies in many parts of the world, Fromm (1941) investigated the nature of authority concept. He posited that due to the unknown nature of freedom and independence, individuals have a tendency towards fear and anxiety, and in order to control these feelings and not make decisions on their own, they prefer to follow an authoritarian leader who would make decisions on their behalf. As one of the first critical theorists, Fromm examined traditional roles in society vis-à-vis gender and family. His critical understanding of gender roles in society helped link feminist theory with critical theory.

To sum up, Horkheimer, Marcuse, Adorno and Fromm evaluate changes in capitalism from perspectives of power and domination (Howell, 2013). Moreover, one of the most important contributions of Frankfurt School Critical Theorists, to the literature, is the introduction of emancipation to the research process through providing awareness of the material conditions of our own knowledge (Anderson, 2000). In order to determine what our knowledge entails, critical theory reviews its structure and dynamics within society (Nielsen, 1992).

The second generation of critical theorists cultivated around the axis of Habermas' (1974) thoughts. He reorganized Frankfurt School's theoretical perspective from a fundamental distinction between strategic and communicative rationality (Pensky, 1999). He discussed science's dependability on ideological assumptions and interests and offered an ideal of communication through rational subjects completely independent from

domination and error-inducing interests (Honderich, 2005). In addition, he identified three functions which provide mediation between theory and practice: firstly, the formation and extension of critical theorems which aim at true statements; secondly, the organization of the enlightenment process which aims at authentic insights; and finally, the selection of appropriate strategies for developing prudent decisions (Habermas, 1974).

Third generation critical theorists challenge the approach of the Frankfurt School and support Habermas' critical re-examination of first generation's understanding of critical theory (Pensky, 1999). As the most prominent representative of third generation, Honneth (2004 and 2014) emphasizes the importance of conceptual reformulation, the mediation of the present state of our knowledge, and the positive impact of practicing shared-values in group dynamics.

Critical theory's ontology is known as "Historical Realism", because a reality can be understood through historical analysis. A reality is shaped by social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic, and gender factors, in addition, values are crystallized over time (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Heron and Reason, 1997; and, Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009). Critical theory has a transactional and subjectivist epistemology. The researcher and research object are linked and values of the former influences the inquiry. Therefore, the findings of the inquiry are value-mediated (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

For critical theory, subjective humans develop theory in a historical and cultural context (Howell, 2013). Critical theory uses dialogic and dialectical methodology through developing dialectical dialogue between the researcher and research object. Dialectical dialogue should transform misunderstandings and ignorance into more informed consciousness (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Here, structures may be changed and actions are needed to effect change (Howell, 2013).

Paradigms are based on ontological, epistemological, and methodical assumptions. The responses to these three fundamental questions are interconnected with each other and every response affects the answers to all the other questions (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). As mentioned in Section 2.3.1, the reality of IOs has been shaped by economic, social, political, cultural and historical developments. When the first IOs were established, in response to recent atrocious wartime experiences, the main intention for their formation was solely for maintaining peace. However, during the Cold War, IOs

adapted their ontological position according to tensions between the US and USSR and mostly played a balanced role in a bipolar world. After the Cold War, with the rise of neoliberalism, the reality of IOs shifted towards the efforts of economic and social development. Moreover, they began to emerge as important political and economic actors in the setting up of world policy. On the other hand, since September 11th, the mission of most of IOs has been altered into one dealing with security issues.

Not just the concept of IOs, but also that of grand theories of research, and specifically research topics themselves, have been shaped by economic, social, political, cultural, and historical developments. Furthermore, due to the impact of new reforms at IOs, which are explained in Section 2.3, the value of IO staff crystallized over time.

The researcher of this project has worked as a member of a multinational advisory team at NATO (March-October 2010). To this effect, he is very familiar with organizational dynamics of IOs and their staff values. Herein, the researcher and his research subject are linked and his personal values have naturally influenced the process. Therefore, the epistemological approach will be subjective in this research.

The research investigates impact of different national cultural backgrounds on motivation topic. Hence, in order to gain a better understanding of *emic* and *etic* aspects of research, and social transformations between these two cultural perspectives, as regards the methodological facet, the need to develop a dialogue between the researcher and participants becomes imperative. Based on all the above mentioned points, subject and object are inter-subjective in this study, with a historical understanding. To this effect, the best paradigm to be utilized in the research is critical theory. Theoretical framework will be developed from a subjective perspective through an analysis in historical and cultural contexts within critical theory.

4.6 Types of Methodology

Crotty (1998: 3) defines methodology as “the strategy or plan of action which lies behind the choice and use of particular methods”. According to Schwandt (2001: 161), *“methodology analyses the assumptions, principles, and procedures in a particular approach to inquiry”*.

Different ontological and epistemological assumptions have different views of knowledge and reality which reflect in their choice of methodology (Scotland, 2012). In order to clarify the relationship between methodology, ontology, and epistemology, the link between theory, reality, knowledge and truth should be clarified. Positivist perspective views reality as totally independent of humanity, but on the other hand, phenomenological reality considers them to be intrinsically linked. Truth ensures a better understanding of reality. Truths, like theories, cannot remain constant forever. When truth and/or theories change, accordingly, the nature of reality changes with them. Knowledge requires interpretations of facts derived from data. Then again, theory analyses understandings extrapolated from data. Theory can be expressed through immutable laws at one extreme, and social or construction at the other, reflecting reality, truth or knowledge (Howell, 2013). Theory is akin to lenses which help one see truth, knowledge, and reality. The reflection and relation of truth, knowledge, reality, and theory, can change according to the type of methodology considered. Methodology, with ontological and epistemological assumptions, form basic belief systems of paradigms (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). There are different types of research methodology that reflect the assumptions of research paradigms in a study, such as, Grounded Theory⁷⁵, Hermeneutics⁷⁶, Action Research⁷⁷, and Ethnography (Collis and Hussey, 2003).

⁷⁵ Glaser and Strauss (1967) developed grounded theory while they were investigating the subject of dying and death in hospitals. They abandoned employing deducting testable hypotheses from existing theories and began to discover theory from research grounded in qualitative data (Charmaz, 2014). Nowadays, it utilizes a systematic, inductive and comparative approach (Bryant and Charmaz, 2007) to generate or discover a theory from data which has been gained from participants' experiences thorough coding and categorizing (Creswell, 2013).

⁷⁶ Hermeneutics is derived from the Greek word “hermeneuin”, which means to interpret. The origin of the word is inspired from the Greek mythological character, Hermes, who was tasked with delivering messages of Greek Gods to the people (Gadamer, 2006). Hermeneutics is about interpretation and focuses on historical and social contexts that surround actions when interpreting a text (Gadamer, 2008).

⁷⁷ Lewin and his colleagues (1939), as the pioneers of action research, combined their work with the idea of doing experiments. They utilized the results of experiments gained in the workplace and took them well beyond their socio-technical design to develop a theory (Gustavsen, 2001, 2008; Bradbury et al., 2013). Nowadays, action research is mostly used for enhancing conditions and practice in administrative, leadership, social and community setting environments (Craig, 2009).

4.7 The Methodology for this Research

Ethnography is derived from the terms *ethnos* and *graphic*. *Ethnos* is a Greek word meaning ethnic group and *graphic* means explaining or describing something clearly and simply (Glesne, 2011). Ethnography scrutinizes culture-sharing groups (McCurdy et al., 2005) and tries to define their values, beliefs, behaviours, and understandings (Harris, 1968; and, Creswell, 2013). Since modern culture concept emerged in the beginning of the 1800s, cultural research has had a tendency to understand and explain human behaviour in a clearly more scientific manner (Fox, 1985). Fetterman (1989: 27) posits that *“culture is the broadest ethnographic concept that helps the ethnographer search for a logical cohesive pattern in the myriad, often ritualistic behaviours, and ideas that characterize a group”*.

In the social science literature, ethnography initially begun to be utilized as a methodology by anthropologists in the last quarter of the 19th Century (Toren, 1996). Geertz surmises (1973: 6) that, *“....in order to describe performing ethnography, a start should be made towards grasping what anthropological analysis amounts to as a form of knowledge”*. Anthropological ethnography became one of the fundamental figures of Western sociology in the beginning of the twentieth century and it mostly focused on community study movement⁷⁸ (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007). In the late 1930s, William Foot Whyte conducted one of the classic examples of ethnography research, entitled, *“Street Corner Society: The Social Structure of an Italian Slum”*. In it, he investigated a street corner society by living in that area and meeting the local people (Have, 2004). After the 1930s, Chicago School of Ethnography took on a pioneering role in the advancement of ethnography. Accordingly, it developed a realistic understanding of urban life through conducting local studies and analysing human behaviour. Chicago School researchers generally utilized more mixed methods by combining quantitative (statistical) data with qualitative techniques, such as, remote interviews, face-to-face interviews, and life histories (Deegan, 2001).

⁷⁸ Community study movement involved studies of villages and towns in the United States and Western Europe, often concerned with the impact of urbanization and industrialization (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007: 1).

According to Hammersley and Atkinson (2007), in the twenty-first century, ethnography was influenced by various theoretical approaches, such as, anthropological and sociological functionalism, philosophical pragmatism and symbolic interactionism, Marxism, phenomenology, hermeneutics, structuralism, feminism, constructionism, post-structuralism, and postmodernism. Furthermore, they defined ethnography's role in today's social science as follows:

"Increasingly, it has been compared and contrasted not just with experimental and survey research but also with interview-based studies, macro-historical analysis, political economy, conversation and discourse analysis, and psycho-social approaches. In short, 'ethnography' plays a complex and shifting role in the dynamic tapestry that the social sciences have become" (Ibid: 2).

Nowadays, ethnography is differentiated according to different research perspectives. There are three main types of ethnography in available literature: *Positivist, critical and postmodern*. Positivist ethnography seeks to provide objectivity and total separation of the investigator from investigation. Therefore, it follows similar procedures of natural science while investigating knowledge and choosing mostly non-participatory observation as a method (Howell, 2013).

Critical ethnography utilizes a reflective process which selects between conceptual alternatives, value-added opinions of meaning, and method to criticize inquiry research (Thomas and O'Maolchatha, 1989: Thomas, 1993). Critical ethnography challenges the status quo and settled powers in group or society (Cook, 2005) through interpretation of the researcher.

The third type is post-modern ethnography. Tyler (1986: 125) defines post-modern ethnography as follows:

"A post-modern ethnography is a cooperatively evolved text consisting of fragments of discourse intended to evoke in the minds of both reader and writer an emergent fantasy of a possible world of common-sense reality, and thus to provoke an aesthetic integration that will have a therapeutic effect."

On the other hand, Howell (2013: 119) evaluates post-modern ethnography from the perspective of constructivism:

“Post-modern ethnography requires a foundation-less detachment in terms of a phenomenological stream of becoming and the world continually shifting in relation to this becoming. The world is a social construction that relates to individuals and is defined and determined by ideology, power, politics and culture that are implicit in this construction.”

Ethnographers mostly prefer to use participant observation as a method (Davies, 2008) in their research, but it is very common to see other methods, such as, interviews, focus groups, group discussions, and surveys in ethnographic examinations. Whichever method is being utilized, it should not be forgotten that ethnography involves direct and sustained contact, watching what happens, listening to what is being said (O'Reilly, 2009), and focusing on the effects of culture as regards the inquiry.

This research investigates motivation concept in a multicultural environment. Culture is one of the grand theories of this research. Group, or societal values, and distinct cultures from different perspectives, are important components of research progress. Understanding and interpreting cultural aspects gains importance in almost every step of the research. Ethnography renders insight into groups and provides us a better understanding of group members' world of existence (Howell and Annansingh, 2013). Furthermore, ethnography requires direct and sustained contact with group members (O'Reilly, 2009). Especially, while investigating emic perspective of participants, ethnography is a pretty utile methodology.

There are different types of research methodologies that reflect the assumptions of research paradigms in a study (Collis and Hussey, 2003). From the ontological view of research, understanding cultural development holds a very fundamental place. In addition, epistemologically, the dialogue between the researcher and the inquiry is necessary while creating knowledge during the research process. To these effects, in order to make the necessary linkages with this research's paradigm of inquiry (critical theory), and to respond to research questions thoroughly, critical ethnography will be used as a methodology.

Critical ethnography is related to critical theory. Accurate theoretical framework and theory provide good practice. Moreover, theory analyses knowledge, or truth, which is derived from reality or empirical situations and contexts. In this manner, critical ethnography forms the practical part of critical theory. Madison (2012: 13) defines this relationship as follows: *“ethnography becomes the ‘doing’—or, better, the performance—of critical theory.”* In order to implement critical ethnography in this research, Thomas’s (1993) framework is taken into consideration: the first step is developing an understanding of the critical potential of ethnography and a fundamental understanding of critical thinking. The second step: techniques to implement are identified by considering ontology, selecting a critical topic, method, data analysis and interpretation, discourse and reflexivity issues. The third step is to move from implementing general principles to concrete examples. In this step, self-perception of the subculture and their meanings given by dominant culture are scrutinized and differentiated through empirical application. Last step is the conclusion.

4.8 Conclusion

Answering research questions is one of the most important requirements of an academic investigation. In order to attain proper and satisfactory solutions, research must be designed akin to a long term project. Hereby, establishing flexible, interactive, explorative and qualitative research designs, provides an in-depth understanding as it relates to the research topic. The components of this design must act in harmony and their fluency must be assured by the researcher. In order to ensure these requirements, utilizing abductive reasoning gains importance as it helps establish a more flexible and free research environment during the process of knowledge production.

Furthermore, philosophical perspective, paradigms of inquiry, and methodological approach must complement each other. Reality of IO concept is shaped by economic, social, political, cultural and historical developments. In addition, researcher and research subject are linked and personal values of researcher influence the research. Therefore, results are subjective and there is a need for dialogue between researcher and research subject. To this effect, the research philosophical perspective leans heavily on “phenomenology” by utilizing “critical theory”.

The most distinctive feature of the IO work environment is its multicultural character. Here, it is common to find teams which are composed of all different nationalities. Therefore, only exploring motivation and leadership concepts is not enough for such a setting, but national and organizational cultures must also be investigated thoroughly. It is for certain that utilizing ethnographic methodology provides a better understanding of culture-related concepts. Due to its links to critical theory, as a research methodology, critical ethnography is utilized in this research.

CHAPTER 5

Research Methods

5.1 Introduction

After determining the epistemological and ontological positions, and methodology of the research, a question emerges: “How will data be collected in this research?” As explained in the previous chapter, the second step of critical ethnography methodology is focusing on this question. The phenomenological and ethnographic lenses of the researcher enlighten the process of responding to this question.

Before deciding research methods, this chapter begins with a clarification of the subject area of the inquiry. Afterwards, a number of different data collection methods will be investigated and the best-fit methods for the process will be determined. The next section will explain how participants have been selected during the research process. Besides, as the most important inner dynamics of an academic research, rigour and ethical considerations will come to light. Finally, the research coding approach will be explained thoroughly.

5.2 Subject Area

This research investigates work motivation concepts in multicultural environments, and as a subject area it focuses on IOs. The general tendency in the existing literature is seeing IO staff motivation as a part of public motivation management understanding. However, it is obvious that dealing with a multicultural workforce has its own dynamics. Therefore, there is a need for developing a unique motivation approach for them.

IO concept covers many institutions, such as, intergovernmental, international non-governmental, and transnational hybrid organizations. In order not to get lost in the vast universe of IOs, and conversely, to be able to make necessary comparisons, three sister intergovernmental organizations, in the sectors of economy and development, were selected: the UNCTAD, the WTO and the ITC.

As a core body of the UN organizational structure, the UNCTAD determines its own main dynamics, regulations and general personnel profile. On the other hand, in order to see different working mechanisms and the mind-set of IOs, another dominant IO, the WTO, was chosen as a second institution. Moreover, the ITC holds an exceptional place amid these two major organizations by having a joint mandate with the WTO and the UNCTAD. It was assumed that the ITC would show the interaction and synthesis between the UN and the WTO in the course of implementation. Thereby, the ITC was preferred as the third IO in the practice part of the research.

Among IOs, the UN holds a predominant place with its vast organizational networks, funds, programs, and specialized agencies. Hence, as a specialized agency of the UN, the WHO was included in the empirical segment of the research. Unlike economic and development oriented IOs, being in a different sector, that of health, helped bring a variant perspective into the whole research process.

5.3 Data Collection Methods

Methods are the specific techniques and procedures which are utilized for collecting and analysing data (Crotty, 1998). All philosophical positions or paradigms of inquiry can use a combination of both quantitative and qualitative methods (Scotland; 2012). Even still, researchers holding different philosophical positions can utilize the different research approaches available regarding the same phenomenon (Grix, 2004). It is very common to see quantitative methods using surveys⁷⁹ and structured interviews in positivist and post-positivist paradigms. Then again, qualitative data is mostly used through interviews, focus groups, and observation in phenomenological studies, like critical theory, constructivism, and participatory paradigms (Howell, 2013).

Critical ethnography is utilized to investigate both the experiences of group members and the social factors that contribute to those experiences (Cook, 2005). Furthermore, in this study, group member perspectives were explored through the utilization of interviews and focus groups. Alternatively, in order to understand the social factors at work in IOs, in addition to the interviews and focus groups, and as a third method, observation was also included in the empirical portion of the research.

⁷⁹ Survey produces statistics and provides quantitative or numerical description of samples from selected populations (Fowler, 2014).

5.3.1 Interviews

Josselson (2013: 1) defines interview as “a shared product of what the interviewer and interviewee talk about and how they talk together”. Knowledge is produced through conversation advanced by both interviewer and interviewee (Kvale, 1996). There are three main types of interviews in the research process: Structured, semi-structured, and unstructured. Structured interview utilizes predetermined questions which are always asked in the same sequence. A standardized protocol which aims to reduce the subjectivity of interviewer is prepared and is sent to interviewee in advance (Briggs, 1986).

Semi-structured interviews utilize fixed questions, but the interviewer can pursue different queries depending on the flow of the interview. Moreover, a question may be put earlier than planned or the interviewee may answer a query before it is asked. Semi-structured interviews, while providing some kind of flexibility to the inquiry, follow a structure over its parameters (Bailey, 2007). Therefore, it is a very popular method in phenomenological studies.

Unstructured interview uses neither predetermined questions nor an interview protocol. Mostly, the interviewer has a list of topics (Bryman, 2004) and interviewee responds regarding a given subject matter (Schostak, 2006).

In order to conduct an open and flexible interview research, Kvale (1996: 88) developed seven stages of inquiry: a. Thematising: the first step is clarifying the purpose of the research; b. Designing: all seven stages should be taken into consideration before beginning the interview, furthermore, design should be related to obtaining knowledge and the moral implications of study; c. Interviewing: should be based on an interview guide and a reflexive approach to the desired knowledge; d. Transcribing: all interviews should be transcribed; e. Analysing: according to the purpose and topic of research and nature of interview materials, a method of analysis must be executed; f. Verifying: depending on the type of research, reliability or validity, or both, must be provided; and, g. Reporting: taking into consideration ethical aspects of the interview, its findings must be written in accordance with scientific writing norms.

Yet, while choosing the type of interview to be conducted, a holistic approach that covers paradigms of inquiry, research questions, purpose of research, and methodology of research should be developed by the researcher (Bailey, 2007).

5.3.2 Focus Group

Focus group study emerged in behavioural science after the Second World War as a data collection method (Stewart et al., 2009). It aims to get emic perspective of selected group members (Holloway and Wheeler, 1996) in a safe environment. There exists an interaction discussion among members through sharing their opinions and perceptions (Krueger, 1994). Explicit use of group interaction makes focus group method different from other group methods (Morgan, 1988; and, Kitzinger, 1994), such as, nominal group technique⁸⁰ and Delphi technique⁸¹. Liamputtong (2011: 5-6) makes a good summary of important features regarding focus groups:

- a. "It enables in-depth discussions and involves a relatively small number of people.*
- b. It is focused on a specific area of interest that allows participants to discuss the topic in greater detail.*
- c. Interaction is a unique feature of the focus group interview. Indeed, this characteristic distinguishes the method from the individual in-depth interview.*
- d. A moderator, who is often also the researcher, introduces the topic and assists the participants to discuss it, encouraging interaction and guiding the conversation.*
- e. The participants usually share social and cultural experiences or share particular area of concern."*

There are many different opinions among academics regarding the ideal size a focus group should have, as there is no consensus in this regard. In general, 3-12 individuals are the accepted norm for conducting a focus group. Here though, the experience and ability of the moderator is a rather important factor in determining the ideal size of the group. Moreover, the moderator has a key role to play in the overall success of the focus group method. "Personal characteristics, educational and training background, previous experiences as a moderator, situational characteristics, like sensitivity of the topic, the scope and depth of coverage required, leading capacity of physical environment and time limits" (Stewart et al., 2007: 69) are the foremost elements

⁸⁰ "Each member of the group is interviewed individually, and summaries of the responses and ideas of the other group members are provided to the other groups", in the nominal group technique (Stewart, Shamdasani, and Rook, 2007: 153).

⁸¹ The Delphi technique develops a consensus of opinions concerning a specific topic through a series of questionnaires to collect data from a panel of selected subjects (Hsu and Sandford, 2007: 1-2).

for being an effective moderator. In order to make participants feel comfortable to express their opinions freely and provide divergent views, the researcher can use different stimulus materials and activities, such as, vignettes (Bailey, 2008), cartoons, videos, games, newspaper clippings, exercises, and flip charts in the focus group method (Liamputtong, 2011). More to the point, these kinds of stimuli create a better atmosphere for achieving a more comprehensive research study.

5.3.3 Observation

Observation generates data from human experience (Schwandt, 2001). Positivist and Phenomenological paradigms can use the observation method. Positivist researcher keeps objective distance from natural or physical settings where observation takes place. Phenomenological researchers provide interaction with respondents in their natural settings (Howell, 2013).

There are two main types of observation, as non-participatory and participatory. Non-participatory observation fits best with structured observation⁸². Here, the observer is part and parcel of the situation under observation but remains outside of group activities as regards non-participant observation. On the other hand, participatory observation method is mostly appropriate for constructivist and participatory paradigms (Ibid). Here, the observer takes part in daily events during the observation regarding participatory observation (Bailey, 2007). Participatory observation is utilized to generate practical and theoretical truths about social life that are embedded in the realities of daily existence (Jorgensen, 1989).

In addition to these two fundamental categories of observation, there are other types incorporated within, which can be classified as, *structured*, *unstructured*, *overt* and *covert*. While structured observation systematically focuses on an individual's behaviour as regards a plan or a schedule, contrariwise, in order to create a narrative form of the observed, unstructured observations note as much as possible without utilizing any schedules (Bryman, 2004). Furthermore, observers have to declare their identity, aims, and objects of observation in an overt manner. As a result, it can help uncover ethical

⁸² Structured observation, or in other words, systematic observation, follows explicitly formulated rules that inform observers of what they investigate and how they should record observations. Participants are observed for a predetermined time using the same rules (Bryman, 2004). On the contrary, unstructured observation does not follow any specific rule and tries to reach as much as possible.

aspects expected from a scientific research. Inversely, covert observation aims to reach real natural settings by hiding the identity of the researcher, or the aims of the investigation. Even though this method solves the problems associated with the *Hawthorne Effect*, whereby observed subjects behave differently than they normally would, it does manage to reach real and natural paradigms of inquiry while touching upon ethical concerns. Therefore, covert observation is not preferred by most academics.

5.4 The Methods for this Research

This research seeks to answer pertaining research questions and aims to reach the research object. As explained in the chapter on *Methodology*, explorative, qualitative and abductive research types apply best to this study and the researcher utilizes a phenomenological philosophical perspective with a critical theory paradigm in addition to critical ethnography as a methodology. Consequently, epistemologically, subjectivity and variant personal values and perspectives gain more importance during this research.

Interpretation and theoretical analysis capacity are the most important skills a critical ethnographer needs while dealing with empirical data (Howell, 2013). Interviews provide a window into the various in-depth insights of participants, and to this effect, the researcher gains a greater range of divergent data for the analysis process. Diversification of data brings richness to interpretation. Three types of interviewing can be utilized in both positivist and phenomenological studies. Then again, structured interviews with closed questions fit best into a positivist and post-positivist research. On the other hand, for phenomenological studies, semi-structured and unstructured interviews are the most appropriate types to be considered (Ibid). Semi-structured interview uses fixed questions that can be adapted during the interview process. Thus, it provides a more open discussion and a better understanding of the research. Supervisors of IOs are well occupied and the best way to meet with them is an individual appointment according to their availabilities. In addition, due to the hierarchical order in organizations and power struggles amongst them, some supervisors may be sensitive about sharing their ideas in a group discussion. To these effects, semi-structured interview was used as one of the methods while collecting primary data for this research. As a critical ethnographic researcher, before beginning to conduct interviews, implementing pre-tests holds an important place in the process of gathering information as they provide different perceptions on the reflection of theoretical questions vis-à-vis

the practice area. Hence, five interviews, as pre-tests, were conducted with IO supervisors. In the selection of these participants, different managerial levels, national background, age, and sex, were taken into consideration, and according to their feedback and reaction to questions, the questions were revised and final version shown in Appendix A. Moreover, while conducting interview method, Kvale's (1996) seven stages of inquiry were pursued.

On the other hand, staff in IOs mostly spend time with their colleagues at lunch or while taking a drink. There is no hierarchical relation with each other and they have a tendency to be part of a common discussion. Therefore, in order to provide a better understanding of group dynamics and to explore various experiences and opinions of participants, a focus group was utilized as the second method in the research as another provider of primary data. Principally, stemming from the positivist approach, there is a real concern about ascertaining if the focus group participants are being honest. In order to ensure validity, in most cases a questionnaire is what is utilized to double check. Contrariwise, phenomenological studies perceive truth as relative and focus on gathering information on different concerns and perspectives rather than only recognizing one definitive view (Barbour, 2007). Therefore, creating a free atmosphere for discussion is a crucial component of a successful focus group process in phenomenological studies. In order to provide a relaxed discussion environment, in lieu of classical techniques, showing cartoons⁸³, asking a tricky question, and utilizing a famous quotation, were utilized in this research as focus group stimuli.

A focus group research map (shown in *Appendix B*) was linked to research aims and questions, paradigms of inquiry, ethnographic methodology, and meso theories. During focus group activities, the researcher also became the moderator and a professional research assistant was hired for each focus group session in order to assist him. The assistant took comprehensive notes, focused on capturing the implicit and nuanced particulars of the discussions and recorded them with a voice recorder, but did not intercede in them. After each of the focus group sessions, the assistant presented a summary of the important points, and the participants' verbal and non-verbal reactions, in the group interactions. Hence, while the researcher limited himself to only presiding over the discussions, his assistant facilitated in the transcription of the gathered data and

⁸³ The fees of copyright for the cartoons were paid by the researcher.

understanding of group dynamics, norms and meanings. As well, the assistant acted as a second pair of eyes for the moderator, providing further credibility to the quality of data collected through reviewing and verifying of notes and recordings with the moderator. However, before commencing focus group discussions, in order to test the questions and enhance researcher's moderating skills, a pilot focus group study was conducted with the participation of four IO staff who had different nationalities, positions, ages and sex. Again as a critical ethnographer, seeing different perspectives and perceptions is very important for a researcher. Thus, after the pilot study, the participants filled a focus group evaluation form which was shown in Appendix C. According to their comments and feedback, the questions were modified and the researcher re-evaluated his stance as a moderator. Moreover, in order to conduct effective discussions, a focus group guide was prepared in advance and during sessions, the moderator followed this guide, which is demonstrated in Appendix D.

As a meso theory, Schein's organizational culture model holds an important place in the determination of cultural aspects of IOs. While Schein (2004) was investigating organizational culture concept in his clinical studies, he actively utilized observation method as well. Observation method not only provides an in-depth understanding of artifacts, but it also provides an idea of other layers of organizational culture, such as, espoused beliefs and values, and basic underlying assumptions. Likewise, this research is shaped by critical ethnography methodology which is based on grasping cultural perspectives of the subject area. To these effects, based on the observation plan which is shown in *Appendix E*, non-participant, structured, and overt observations were also conducted in this research.

Moreover, as secondary data sources, books, journals, articles, conference papers, reports and e-resources were utilized, especially in the theoretical part of the research.

5.5 Selection of Participants

There are two main workforce categorizations in IOs: supervisors and staff. In order to get their opinions, two different research methods have been applied: first, semi-structured interviews were performed with supervisors; and second, focus group studies were done with staff. While selecting participants from both groups, quota sampling

technique was implemented. The GLOBE Study is one of the meso theories of this research; therefore, its cultural cluster⁸⁴ was taken into consideration while determining participants' different national culture backgrounds. According to the size of organizations and consent of participants from the four IOs, five or six supervisors and staff for interviews and focus groups were selected; well-balanced from ten different cultural clusters of the GLOBE study. Furthermore, according to the *North American Industry Classification System*⁸⁵, the researcher divided organizations into two groups whereby the employment band is more or less around five hundred staff members. The general population of the WHO, and the WTO, number more than five hundred, but on the other hand, the UNCTAD and ITC have less employed members than that. Thereby, six supervisors, and the same number of staff, participated as a sampling population in the research for each of the former (WHO/WTO), and five supervisors, and the same number of staff, from each of the latter (UNCTAD/ITC) mentioned organizations.

In addition, supervisor's sampling was divided into three segments: junior, middle and senior level supervisors. However, managerial level categorization of IOs is rather different than classic private sector understanding. In IOs, it is possible that even someone who holds a P5 level might manage not even one staff member. This study explores work motivation concepts, and so, managers are referred to as supervisors, and in lieu of their cadre level, they are categorized according to how many staff members they manage. If the ratio of supervisor to staff is less than 0.3, then: If a supervisor manages between one to nine staff members, they are categorized as a *junior* supervisor; if between ten to fourteen, as *mid-level*; and, if more than fifteen, they fall under *high-level* supervisor categorization. Regarding this ratio, the UNCTAD ($100/339 = 0.29$) and WHO ($400/1600 = 0.25$) were evaluated under this grouping. Two executive, two middle, and two junior level supervisors (one junior level from the UNCTAD) were accepted into the sample groupings from these organizations. On the other hand, if the

⁸⁴ There are ten GLOBE Cultural Clusters: a. Anglo Cultures: Australia, England, Ireland, New Zealand, South Africa (White Sample), USA, Canada; b. Latin Europe: France, Portugal, Spain, Israel, Italy, Switzerland (French Speaking); c. Nordic Europe: Finland, Sweden, Denmark; d. Germanic Europe: Austria, Germany, Netherlands, Switzerland (German speaking); e. Southern Asia: India, Indonesia, Iran, Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand; f. Eastern Europe: Greece, Russia, Albania, Georgia, Hungary, Kazakhstan, Poland, Slovenia; g. Latin America: Argentina, Colombia, Mexico, Bolivia, Brazil, Costa Rica, Ecuador, el Salvador, Guatemala, Venezuela; h. Sub-Saharan Africa: South Africa (Black Sample), Namibia, Nigeria, Zambia, Zimbabwe; i. Middle East/Arab: Turkey, Egypt, Kuwait, Morocco, Qatar; and, j. Confucian Asia: China, Hong Kong, Singapore, Japan, South Korea, Taiwan (House et al., 2004).

⁸⁵ The North American Industry Classification System presents highly reliable and valuable assistance to companies to classify their business establishments. Its employment bands are accepted by many private sector companies, public organizations, and research institutions.

ratio of supervisor to staff is more than 0.3: Supervisors who managed between one to three staff members were categorized as junior supervisors; between four to nine staff, as mid-level; and if ten or more staff, they fell under high-level supervisor categorization. Regarding this ratio, the ITC ($100/200 = 0.5$) and the WTO ($200/440 = 0.45$) were evaluated under this grouping, and two executive, two middle and two junior level supervisors (one junior level from the ITC) were accepted in the samplings from these organizations. Similarly, in order to convey variant perspectives, supervisors were selected from different departments as well.

Furthermore, except for these three classifications (national cultural backgrounds, managerial levels and different departments), no other prerequisites, like age or sex, for example, were considered during the selection process of sampling for interviews. Conversely, for focus groups, in addition to selecting samples from different national/cultural backgrounds and different departments, in order to gain diverse perspectives, six or five staff (non-managerial positions) from various ages and experiences were included.

5.6 Rigour in Relation to the Overall Research Process Regarding Paradigm of Inquiry, Methodology and Methods

The Oxford dictionary defines rigour⁸⁶ as, “*The quality of being extremely thorough and careful*”⁸⁷. The origin of rigour dates back to the late 14th Century as an old French word, rigour, derived from the Latin word, rigor, meaning ‘stiffness’⁸⁸. Today, rigour demonstrates integrity and competence in a piece of research (Aroni et al., 1999) and has a very important role in establishing a piece of academic research; without rigour, research is little different than fictional journalism which makes no contribution to knowledge (Morse et al., 2002). However, Tobin and Begley (2004) criticize Morse et al.’s idea and confer that the concept of rigour should not be rejected by qualitative researchers but in order to realize research’s aims, it can be used within its epistemology.

Lincoln (1995) evaluates rigour from the perspectives of ethics. According to him, standards of quality and those of ethics are the same in interpretive social science.

⁸⁶ British English spelling of rigor.

⁸⁷ <http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/rigour>

⁸⁸ <http://www.etymonline.com/index.php?term=rigor>

Rigour can be seen in all types of research approaches. However, Juroš (2011) argues that the role of ethics and rigour in a qualitative research are more important than in that of a quantitative one as there are more interactions between the researcher and respondents.

Paradigms of inquiry, methodology and method are not only related and affect each other in the research process, but also develop the rigour of research through reliability, validity, generalization in positivism and trustworthiness, and validity and reflexivity in phenomenology. While developing rigour however, the researcher faces some difficulties in developing procedure. Howell (2013) identifies this difficulty which has emerged in positivist and phenomenological approaches of research, in this way:

“One major difficulty is that of identifying truth (or reality) and in this context one may question all methodological approaches and methods. However, notions regarding levels of reliability, validity and generalization, as with trustworthiness, fairness and credibility provide a yardstick by which levels of rigour and measurement in research projects can be gauged and assessed” (Ibid: 191-192).

So based on all the above mentioned points, we demonstrate the relation of rigour to the overall research process regarding paradigm of inquiry, methodology and methods, as demonstrated in Figure 5.1 below.

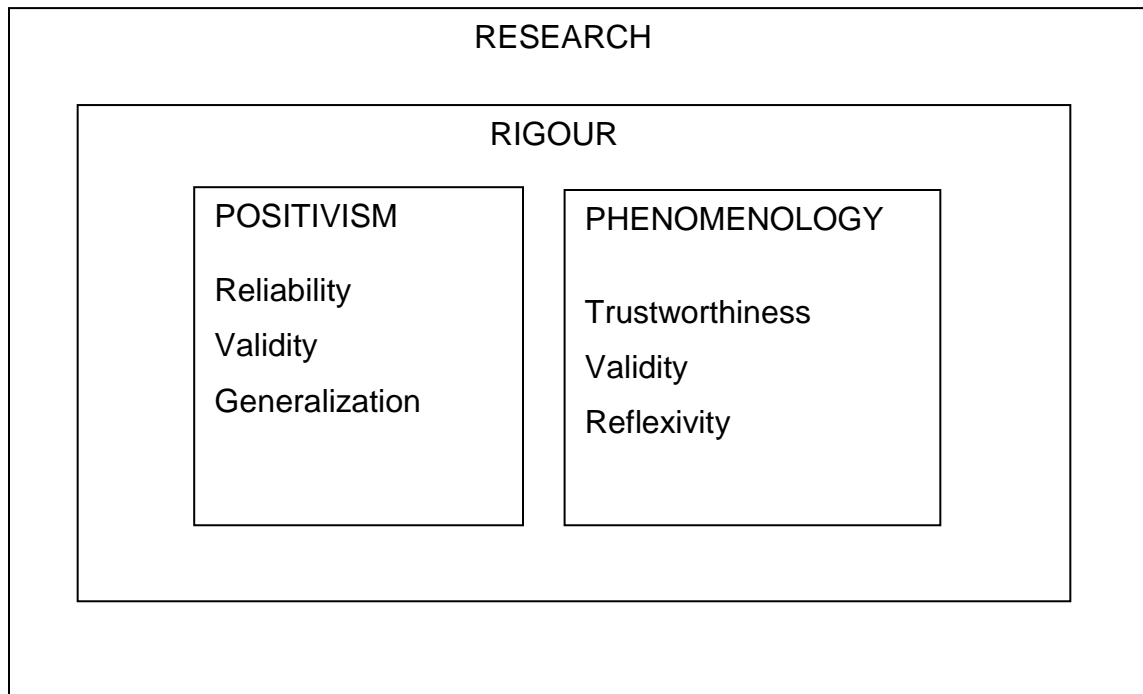


Figure 5.1: Research, Rigour, and Paradigm of Inquiry

5.7 Rigour in Relation to Reliability, Validity, Generalization and Trustworthiness

Four main criteria can be used to judge the rigour of a conventional research: a. Reliability (replicability), b. Generalisation (external validity), and, c. Validity and Objectivity (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

5.7.1 Reliability

Reliability can be used in positivist and post-positivist inquiries, rather than phenomenologist examinations, in order to show the reliability of achieving similar results while repeating the same research. In order to provide reliability of measures, mostly, four main ways have been used in the literature: a. conceptualizing constructs clearly, b. utilizing a certain level of measurement, c. using multiple indicators, and, d. running pilot-tests (Neuman, 2011).

Kirk and Miller (1986) refer to three types of reliability in qualitative research: a. quixotic reliability, b. diachronic reliability, and, c. synchronic reliability. Quixotic

reliability is based on observing consistency. Diachronic reliability refers to the stability of an observation which is taken at different times. Synchronic reliability looks into the similarity of observation in the same length of time.

In phenomenology, the results are subjective; the researcher and the research issues are linked with each other. That is why, in phenomenological research there is no need to repeat the results as the results change according to the researcher's perspective. On the other hand, in positivism and post-positivism, objectivity is pursued and there is a separation between the researcher and research issue. Hence, the importance of reliability gains more importance in positivist and post-positivist research.

5.7.2 Generalization

Generalization is mostly utilized in quantitative research and shows how the results can be generalized for bigger samples. Even though it is very rare, there are some generalization implementations in a qualitative research as well. Regarding this, Larsson (2009) offers three methods: a. Maximize variation, b. Provide context similarity, and, c. Recognize patterns. Firstly, instead of using random samplings, variations of qualitatively different samplings should be included in the research process in order for different opinions to develop better understandings of the qualitative research. Secondly, a researcher should provide sufficient descriptive data to make judgements possible regarding any similarity between the researched context and other contexts. Finally, qualitative researchers sometimes produce new patterns that can be identified in the empirical world. Thus, pattern which have not been seen before is presented to the reader; this can be referred to as a variant of generalization. The communicated pattern is recognized in new cases (Ibid). However, in this research, in lieu of generalization, the term of transferability is utilized.

5.7.3 Validity

Validity, different from reliability, is a more theoretical concept. Howell (2013) divides its definition of validation into two parts. First from a positivist perspective, validity defines which measurement is accurate and what is supposed to be measured is actually being measured; how far one can see that a test measures the phenomenon we expect it

to. On the other hand, from a phenomenological perspective, validity involves accessing knowledge and meaning for realisation. Validity interrogates the authenticity of findings, the research's trustworthiness, and how it is being acted upon.

There are four types of validity: First, *measurement validity* investigates if a discovered result from statistical data really indicates what is measured in a quantitative research. Second, internal validity examines if a conclusion contains causal relationship of variables (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Third, external validity generalizes results from a specific to a broad range (Neuman, 2011). This type of validity may also be called generalization and was explained in the previous part. Finally, experiential validity interrogates how far the findings of an experiment can be identified in real life situations (Howell, 2013).

In a qualitative research, most focus on getting an inside view to provide a detailed explanation through interpretation. In order to provide validity in understanding of a qualitative research, researchers have developed various approaches, such as: conveying an insider's opinion to others; using internal and external criticisms to determine whether evidence is real or just believed to be; becoming transparent in the research process; and, creating a tight fit between understandings, opinions, and claims, regarding the social world and what is actually occurring within it (Neuman, 2011).

5.7.4 Objectivity

The principle of objectivity is utilized in positivist and post-positivist research. It is expected that researchers do not incorporate their own opinions, values and beliefs, into the research process. In order to fulfil the requirements of this principle, different quantitative research methods are used and are crosschecked for their findings. However, it is almost impossible to bring some objectivity criteria – via utilizing these kinds of methods – to any phenomenological study. This is because others' views may become partially injected into the research, and subjectivity almost always inserted into the inquiry by the researcher's values, awareness, and mere presence. Hence, especially from an epistemological point of view, this principle cannot be applied into any phenomenological study.

To sum up, this study's philosophical perspective leans heavily on phenomenology, and to this effect, in lieu of reliability, generalization, validity and objectivity, the rigour of research has been provided through trustworthiness and reflexivity⁸⁹.

5.7.5 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness demonstrates the quality of a research's findings. It also exhibits to the reader that the research is worth paying attention to. Conventional researchers use internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity to understand trustworthiness by looking into four characteristic inquiries: a. Truth value, b. Applicability, c. Consistency, and, d. Neutrality (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). Lincoln and Guba (1985) found these conventional criteria inappropriate to phenomenological research and instead developed four alternative criteria: a. Credibility, b. Transferability, c. Dependability, and, d. Confirmability. Four years after publishing their study, Guba and Lincoln revised their findings and added a fifth criterion, namely authenticity (Schwandt, 2001).

5.7.5.1 Transferability

Transferability is similar to positivist generalization or external validity criterion. It is utilized in phenomenological studies through checking the applicability of findings to similar contexts. Guba and Lincoln (1989) offer to use "thick description" as a major technique while providing transferability in a research. *Thick description* benefits from combining various methods, such as, interviews, observations, and focus groups. The researcher fulfilled requirements of thick description through effectively utilizing these three methods in this research. Furthermore, during participant selection processes, members from different cultural clusters, and a number of departments, were included for participation in the inquiry. As a result, the researcher brought a *thick* interpretation understanding which ensured a database that demonstrated the possibility of the findings' transferability.

This investigation's empirical component was conducted at the ITC, the UNCTAD, the WTO, and the WHO. These organizations are generally classified as IOs, yet specifically, represent the organizational characteristics of intergovernmental

⁸⁹ Reflexivity will be mentioned in the general conclusion chapter of the research.

organizations. Hence, the findings of this research can be transferable for other intergovernmental organizations as well.

Likewise, the ITC, the UNCTAD, and the WTO are sister organizations which work in the arena of trade and development. The UNCTAD completely conforms to the UN system, the WTO has its own regulations and dynamics, and the ITC falls somewhere in the middle. In addition, the three organizations work rather closely and complement each other in the trade and development arena; the UNCTAD falls mostly under research and theory. The WTO focuses on regulatory rules and principles. Finally, the ITC is mostly concerned with the practice of equitation through working with SMEs in the field. Therefore, the findings of this study can be easily transferred to trade and development based intergovernmental organizations.

The UNCTAD is a UN body organization, the WHO is a specialized agency of the UN, and the ITC gets half of its budget from the UN, while utilizing her human resource management system. Therefore, the participation of three different UN bodies in the research can benefit the transferability of the findings to other UN-linked institutions as well.

5.7.5.2 Credibility

Credibility is similar to internal validity. However, in lieu of focusing on generally accepted reality, credibility focuses on how the researcher portrays realities that were constructed by participants (Guba and Lincoln, 1986). In order to provide credibility in any qualitative research, seven main techniques can be utilized: a. Using prolonged engagement⁹⁰; b. Persistent observation⁹¹; c. Triangulation⁹²; d. Providing an external check during the inquiry process (peer debriefing); e. Refining working hypotheses when information becomes available (negative case analysis); f. Reevaluating preliminary findings against archived raw data (progressive subjectivity); and, g. Providing member checks from where the data was originally collected (Guba and Lincoln, 1989).

⁹⁰ Prolonged engagement is spending sufficient time to build trust among research participants and to understand social and cultural dynamics of an inquiry.

⁹¹ Persistent observation identifies and focuses on the components of problem in more detail (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 304).

⁹² Triangulation checks the integrity of the inferences one draws. It requires using multiple data sources, multiple investigators, theoretical perspectives, methods, or all of these (Schwandt, 2001).

In this research, prolonged engagement and triangulation techniques were utilized to provide credibility. Very frequently, an ethnographic research benefits from prolonged engagement techniques. Therefore, this technique has been employed actively during this research. Firstly, before commencing interviews, to enable building trust with the participants, the researcher made family visits to some of them during their religious celebration days. In addition, participants were met in work and out of work, some sociality took place. These activities became pretty useful to break the ice, take the tension off of work, and establish trust between the researcher and participants before conducting the inquiries. Secondly, the researcher spent more time at these organizations than was required to conduct interviews and form focus groups (at least one week at each IO). During this time, the researcher carried out a number of off-record discussions with staff regarding their organizational work structures, principles, and day to day realities that were not found in any available documents. In this manner, he gained more insight and practical information vis-à-vis the dynamics of IOs. Finally, to be able to appreciate organizational culture of IOs, non-participant observation was conducted in the physical settings of IOs, during three working days for each organization. Observing various aspects of IOs helped shape the researcher's understanding of investigated phenomena.

Furthermore, data source, and theory and method triangulations, were utilized as other purveyors of credibility for the research. First of all, to be able to reach more credible findings and a holistic understanding of IOs, and to acquire different perspectives, two types of participants were employed in the research: supervisors and staff. This approach shaped the background for data source triangulation. What is more, two variant research methods were developed regarding these different data sources. First, due to the hierarchical order in the organizations, it was assumed that supervisors felt more comfortable in an environment of one-on-one meetings in order to express themselves more freely. For this reason, semi-structured interviews were conducted with them. Second, concerning staff, there were not any hierarchical concerns as they all fell under the same grouping. Although some were more experienced, this attribute did not reflect on their rank. Also, they did socialize with each other by spending time during coffee and lunch breaks. Focus group research provided a more productive, effective, and comfortable environment for these participants. What is more, because of group interaction, different perspectives were included into the research process as well.

Secondly, theory triangulation was developed in the axis of three grand theories: motivation, culture and leadership. These theories refer to different disciplines: motivation-psychology, culture-anthropology, and leadership-political science. Theory triangulation was also reflected in the process of preparing questions for research methods: every question was linked with the theoretical framework of the research. Hence, while interpreting gathered data, the interaction of these theories helped to overcome domination of one discipline over the analysis process, brought academic richness and depth, and moreover, demonstrated the reflection and interaction of motivation concept to other disciplines. As a consequence of this approach, the credibility of gathered data was strengthened.

Finally, three main methods were utilized for the progression of the research: interviews, focus groups, and observations, which established the understanding of method triangulation. Even though interviews and focus groups are two various methods whose findings have been gathered into two different sources of data (thus providing individual and group contributions to the research process), they have rather similar characteristics based on verbal communication. Thus, in order to provide consistency and triangulation of the findings, observation, as a completely different method, was included in the research process as well.

5.7.5.3 Dependability

Dependability is very similar to reliability. It demonstrates the inquiry's consistency among main research components, such as the research topic, questions, aims, paradigms, methodologies and methods (Bailey, 2007). In this research, in order to provide dependability, a research design at a strategic level was created by the researcher. Moreover, data collection and analysis processes were described in more detail, and coding was included in the Appendices I, J and K. Finally, a self-reflection section was written at the end of the thesis which recounts the narrative and recollection of the entire research process from the perspective of the researcher.

5.7.5.4 Confirmability

Confirmability is parallel to objectivity. It examines if the inquiry is influenced by the researcher's biases. Due to their epistemological characteristics that are based on subjectivity, the clarification of these criteria are rather arduous when it comes to phenomenological studies. In order to reduce the researcher's biases, the researcher took into consideration the data that was provided by participants and followed a transparent approach. Moreover, the researcher demonstrated how his biases, values, beliefs and assumptions, have been metamorphosed during the self-reflection segment of the research process as well.

5.7.5.5 Authenticity

Authenticity aims at providing a fair, honest and balanced account of social life from the perspective of someone who is personally involved with the issues at hand (Neuman, 2011). In this research, authenticity was provided through fairness. During interviews, some hierarchical categorization was applied for supervisors. However, this classification was only for the purpose of providing alternative perspectives for various types of managers. All participants have been treated impartially and their comments have been evaluated in an equal manner as well. On the other hand, for focus groups, all the participants were selected from equivalent positions of power, and during exercises, the moderator afforded all voices equal rights and developed a discussion environment that was based on equitable talking and listening. In addition, he prohibited domination of one or two participants over the discussions by providing equal opportunity to talk for all involved and encouraged less verbose individuals to participate more in the deliberations.

5.8 Ethical Considerations

Even ethical considerations are not announced officially at every level of the research but are rather embedded carefully at every stage of the whole process and each step taken has been considered for such contemplations. The main explicit declarations about ethical sensitivities have been observed in four categories:

a. Interviews: Firstly, before trying to reach participants, all official permission to conduct research at IOs were received from responsible officials of the organizations.

Secondly, while preparing interview questions, the researcher showed sensitivity about not asking any personal questions of participants. Thirdly, before interviews, the participants were informed with an interview protocol (Appendix F) and a consent form (Appendix G) via an email. The interview protocol gave brief information about the research subject, object, method, language, questions and expected time of interview. The consent form clarified the following issues for the participants: why they were invited to participate in this research; what was the research objective and method of the study; and, what was the possible risks of the research. Fourthly, they were informed that upon request, a summary of the research findings would be provided to them. Fifthly, they were reminded that the decision to participate would be wholly theirs and if they decide to take part, they would be given an information sheet and be asked to sign a consent form as well, likewise, they would be free to withdraw at any time, at will, during the session, without having to provide any reasons whatsoever. Sixthly, it was specially emphasized that their privacy would be protected under any and all circumstances: all personal information and answers would be kept strictly confidential and their names would not be used in any published materials. Seventhly, the intention of using audio recordings was mentioned in the consent form as well. If they agreed, the discussion would be recorded with a digital voice recorder. If not, then they could request that the voice recorder be turned off at any time and the interview would be conducted by other means. Finally, after acquiring approval of participants and their signatures on the consent forms, the interviews were launched.

b. Focus Group: Firstly, all official permissions to conduct focus group research were received from officials of the organizations. Secondly, while preparing focus group questions and pictures, the researcher showed sensitivity about not using any grey area concepts that may be misunderstood by members of any cultures. Thirdly, similar to the interview consent forms, the questions and consent forms (Appendix H) were sent to the participants in advance via email. This clarified why they were invited, what was the research objective and method, the right to withdraw at any time during the session without providing a reason, and risk assessment demonstrating any apparent risks which could not be identified by the researcher. Fourthly, all personal information and answers were kept strictly confidential and no names were used in any published documents. Fifthly, for each focus group, in addition to the use of note-taking and audio recordings, utilizing visual record permission was also requested. However, some of the participants declared that they did not wish to be visually recorded, therefore, visual record was not

utilized during focus group research. Sixthly, a summary of the research findings would be provided by demand of the participants. Finally, after getting their approval and signatures on the consent forms, the focus group were launched.

c. Observation: While conducting an ethnographic enquiry, it is advised to live in the subject area at question and identify the main cultural characteristics of the organization in its environment. In order to understand the cultural dynamics of IOs, the researcher spent more time than was necessary for performing interviews and conducting focus groups and also performed non-participant observations. An observation plan (Appendix E) with information concerning research type, aim, place, persons, material, approaches, and areas, was sent to officials of each organization for obtaining their research approval. In addition, if requested, the researcher signed a confidentiality agreement to return all the observation notes to the organization. After receiving official permission, the staff in the observation area were verbally informed about the research objective and aim, as well as the researcher's understanding regarding preservation of their anonymity. Thereafter, their consent to take part in the research was probed and all were reminded that they were free to withdraw at any time during the observation. After receiving their verbal consent, the researcher began to take field notes. While pursuing the research aim, instead of taking clandestine notes, using hidden cameras, or concealing real objectives during observations, the researcher declared all his intentions openly to officials and participants and procured the necessary permissions from them for this limited process. Even though this approach may cause a Hawthorne effect, whereby the participants of an observation may behave differently than they would have if unobserved, between this dilemma and following an ethical research approach in relation to the observation method, the researcher chose to be ethical and pursue an overt approach.

d. Analysis: During the transcription process of the data gathered, no change was implemented in the original form of the data. Participants' comments were reported accurately. The researcher avoided using only positive results and analysed both negative and positive views. While analysing any gathered data, the assurance of ensuring all personal information and answers being kept strictly confidential was adhered to very strictly: no names or hint of research participants' identities were identified in any phase of the analysis, or afterwards. Depending on the demands of the

participants, the results of the study shall be shared with them after the end of the project.

Consequently, at every stage of the research, the researcher followed ethical principles, and all quotations, adaptations and inspirations were instated according to the rules of the university's writing and ethical guidelines.

5.9 Coding

The coding process helps make sense of the raw data and brings concrete conclusions to the findings. Codes are labels that denote significance and meaning to data. ECA was utilized in the coding process. ECA was first defined by Altheide (1987), who focused on comprehending communications and verifying theoretical relationships through identifying reflexive interactions between concept development and the complete analytical process. Finding common points, discovering patterning, and classifying findings, are the main components of this qualitative analysis approach.

First of all, all the interviews, focus group discussions, and observation notes, were transcribed into Microsoft *Word* documents, then all the resulting data was transferred to large *Excel* matrixes; one each for interviews, focus groups, and observations, separately for four IOs. The questions of research methods were listed horizontally, and participant pseudonyms were inscribed vertically, on each matrix. All responses by the participants were duly noted in the squares of the matrix while several preliminary typologies and themes were inscribed into charts before commencing the coding. Typologies stand for general meanings or mini-frames of a text. Themes are very broad and there are topical emphases for the text. A total of twelve matrixes were established, and to this effect, an overall comprehension of the data was reached. At this juncture, the researcher began to read the data, focus on meanings and emphases, and noted preliminary coding. Thereupon, the data was read repeatedly and in accordance with common points and patterns which were simplified and reduced in the final coding process. Following this, the researcher compared and contrasted “extremes” and “key differences” within each coding through taking into consideration interrelations among codes and research components, such as: research aim and questions, data sampling, and meso theories. Thereafter, draft typologies and themes were hierarchically reorganized.

In order to develop a reflexive approach, the coding was initially divided into two parts (preliminary and final). Then, during the analysis and interpretation the researcher repeated the interaction of all coding processes with the research aim and questions, data sampling and meso-theories. As Altheide (1987) infers, situations, settings, styles, images, meanings and nuances are the key topics in such reflexive processes. What is more, an additional part, called reflexive comments, was also used to assess the coding of the observation method. All the coding process are demonstrated at Appendices I, J, and K.

5.10 Conclusion

There are not any unique methods that can be applied to all studies of IOs, which concern work motivation aspects in the existing literature. The main trend is using mix studies of qualitative and quantitative research with variant methods of interviews and surveys. Nevertheless, ethnographic methodological studies regarding IOs mostly prefer qualitative inquiry. Furthermore, this research has used critical ethnography as a methodology. As regards methods, it is believed that semi-structured interviews for supervisors, focus groups for staff, and non-participant observation for the physical settings of subject areas, would provide more in-depth and diverse perspectives for the research process.

On the other hand, during the research process, rigour and ethical considerations were more or less imperceptible, but served as its main dynamics. Rigour and ethics are not something that one could understand just by viewing a part of a research. It is rather about the whole process. With the absence of rigour and ethics, it would be very difficult to consider a study as scientific. Therefore, in order to develop rigour and ethics, it is essential to consider all research designs and their interactions with each other. As a consequence of putting on the lenses of phenomenological philosophical perspective, and in lieu of reliability, generalization, validity and objectivity, the researcher ensured the rigour of research through utilizing the concepts of trustworthiness and reflexivity.

An analytical approach, termed “ethnographic content analysis” (ECA), will be used in this research by following a reflexive approach. Gathered data through utilizing interviews, focus groups and observations, will be broken down into meaningful terms, referred to as codes, typologies, and themes.

CHAPTER 6

THE WORLD TRADE ORGANIZATION (WTO)

6.1 Introduction

The WTO is an IO, which aims to regulate global trade rules amongst countries by utilizing the following methods: supervising trade agreements; serving as a negotiation forum; helping settle disputes; providing technical assistance and training programmes for developing countries; and cooperating with IOs and NGOs. In lieu of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), it came into force in Geneva, Switzerland, in 1995. Its decisions are necessarily taken by the unanimous support of all 162 member states, and their approval. (https://www.wto.org/english/thewto_e/whatis_e/inbrief_e/inbr00_e.htm).

Regarding the *Volunteerism Principle* and *Quota Sampling Technique*, six supervisors for interviews, and the same number of staff for focus groups, were included in this research. All the interviews were conducted by the researcher: the shortest lasted 24.57 minutes; the longest took 51.48 minutes; and, the average was 34.26 minutes. While the researcher was presiding over focus group discussions as the moderator, a professional research assistant took notes and recorded with a voice recorder. The focus group discussions lasted 63 minutes. In addition, the researcher followed a three-day working schedule for non-participant observation at facilities of the WTO.

After gathering data through various methods, this chapter focuses on analysing and interpreting these findings. As a subject matter, the WTO will be analysed and interpreted separately, concerning culture, power, leadership and motivation theories, through the lenses of critical ethnography. In this segment, in order not to reveal the identities of the participants, no names shall be mentioned.

Principally, the segment on culture is divided in two main parts, as organizational and national culture. Schein's levels of organizational culture are taken into consideration and IOs will be evaluated from three perspectives: Artefacts, Espoused Beliefs, and, Values and Underlying Assumptions. Artefacts exist on the surface level of the organizational culture model and include the visible structures of the organization, such as, physical environment, language, technology, products, artistic creations, style, dressing code, interaction of members, emotional displays, myths, rituals, ceremonies,

published list of values, symbols, organizational climate, working principles, and charts. Espoused Beliefs and Values are the visions, strategies, objectives and philosophies of the organization. Finally, underlying assumptions are the ultimate source of values and actions, such as those unconsciously taken for granted: beliefs, perceptions, thoughts and feelings. In addition, national culture will be analysed according to the dimensions of the GLOBE study with an exception of *power distance*, which will be separately evaluated in the section concerning power.

The concept of power will be scrutinised by taking into consideration its relationship with culture, leadership, and motivation concepts, each and separately. Moreover, McClelland's power need and the GLOBE study's power distance shall be at the focus of attention. In order to clarify these terms, the specific definition, and understanding of power by each organization, is explored, assessed and then the theoretical dimensions of power is examined through the comments made by each participant vis-à-vis a selected Machiavellian phrase.

Power theory also relates to leadership theory. Therefore, leadership theory is investigated according to leadership types set out by the GLOBE study, ILT, and Schein's understanding of leadership and culture. Hence, defining effective leadership gains importance. After determining specific definitions of an effective leader, types of leadership will be further explored in this chapter.

All the findings regarding culture, power, and leadership theories, serve the common aim of understanding the complex nature of staff motivation as regards workforce relations at IOs. Thus, in the final part of the analysis, the motivation issue is examined. During this process, McClelland's motivation theory, and the research questions, are recognised as the grounding and structure of the analysis.

6.2 Organizational Culture

6.2.1 Artefacts

The WTO building is also known as the *William Rappard Centre*⁹³. After passing through two doors, there is the security reception. In order to enter into the grounds, an internal contact must approve your visit and escort you unto the main building. In so doing, he/she also takes on the responsibility for the visitor whilst in the building. There are four floors above and one more below ground. On the ground floor, there is a special computer space for guests, rooms for state delegates, meeting rooms, a bank, two automated tellers, a book/souvenir shop, and a cafeteria. The restaurant with a 200 seating capacity is located in this supplementary building. Besides, there is a building in the southeast of the main structure, in which there are many meeting rooms, a reception, and a cafeteria.

The organization is rather sensitive vis-à-vis social responsibility and provides handicapped facilities, a three-floor library, a meditation room where members of different religions can worship, an occupational health service for staff, and keeping foliage green and artworks in good repair. There is a big tree in the middle of the atrium and outside the building is covered with grass, trees and plants. Furthermore, there are three statues at the main entrance of the building: "Peace" (left - facing the building), "Justice" (to the right), and "The Tiber"⁹⁴ (located on the northern façade). Behind the reception desk at the main entrance hall, there is the Delft ceramic panel and a mural painting, "The Dignity of Labour", on the left side of the main staircase. On the opposite side of the staircase is another mural painting which represents all forms of labour and three tiled panels on the first floor. In addition, there are some carved figures and symbols on door and window frames of the building, and many works of art and decorative items donated by different countries.

⁹³ William Emmanuel Rappard (1883-1958) was Swiss representative at the International Labour Organization and the United Nations, Director of the Mandate Department of the League of Nations, co-founder of the Graduate Institute of International Studies, and Rector and professor of Economic History at the University of Geneva.

⁹⁴ The Tiber is a river in Italy on which Rome was constructed.

Even though the WTO is a new organization, the physical layout of the building synthesizes history and modernity through combining security concerns, artworks, the environment, and architectural design. To this effect, in lieu of being a heap of concrete, the building gives the impression of having a soul which encompasses the past, present and future. This formation also provides a heart-warming work environment for the staff.

There are no open office layouts at the organization as all workplaces are walled-off and enclosed. The WTO provides spacious working spaces for their staff, with the exception of intern bureaux, who were three or four trainees per room. Other staff had their own separate chamber or share with one other member. Although the enclosed office layout provided more privacy for each person, the organization does not seem to impress, as its aim is such a result. On the contrary, there is a palpable open-door policy throughout the entirety of the organization. In proof of such a reality and as a symbol to it, when staff leave their offices for vacation, they leave their doors open. This policy encourages verbal communication amongst the workforce. Many often go to other colleagues' offices in order to discuss their work issues. Based on long years' acquaintance, there is a warm and friendly working environment and most staff and supervisors seem to have close and sincere relationships, with an overtly good communication interaction. In addition to holding face to face meetings, phone calls and electronic mail are alternative modes of communication, especially apropos long term projects.

English, French and Spanish are the official languages of the organization. Every staff member speaks fluent English and uses it as the main communication language. Most probably, living in Francophone Geneva, they use French as their salutation language. In order to get involved in work discussions, it is necessary to have familiarity with global trade lingo, such as, *trade facilitation*, *tariffs*, *free trade* and *exports*.

No unique dress-code was observed during the observations. However, as a general trend, directors prefer formal business attire, and while others wear smart casual clothing for formal meetings, most staff wear formal business attire. Not having a unique dress-code at the organization positively affects organizational climate through encouraging a comfortable working environment.

Their main rituals are witnessed in their habit of taking breaks. On average, the staff get one lunch and four coffee breaks each day. The first coffee-break of the day is around 09:30 and held mostly at the cafeteria, while some take their drinks to their offices: The second one is between 10:30 and 11:00; a third, following lunch around 13:45; and, the final break between 15:30 and 16:30. At lunch, interns sit as big groups at the tables, but other staff and supervisors are mixed in two or three person groups. The cafeteria and restaurant are the main spaces for socializing. On the other hand, the 2nd and 4th coffee breaks represent another ritual, as the staff discuss work issues during these repose periods, but rarely at other coffee or lunch breaks. Before going on their lunch break or leaving work, the staff critique their daily duties. This ritual also gives off the impression of a relaxed working atmosphere.

6.2.2 Espoused Beliefs and Values

The WTO encourages the main principles of the multilateral trading system, such as, non-discrimination (treating trading partners equally and not discriminating between imported and local goods), lowering trade barriers through negotiation, being predictable and transparent, being competitive and more beneficial for less developed countries, and protecting the environment.

Logo and artworks are the main symbols used to highlight and reinforce espoused beliefs and values. At the outset, the organizational logo is hacked on the wall of the entrance of the grounds, and again in the atrium. The logo was created by a Singapore-based graphic arts company, Su Yeang Design. According to Su Yeang, the six graphic arcs symbolize the dynamic and optimistic relation between the organization and member states based on fair and open trade.

(https://www.wto.org/english/news_e/pres97_e/pr79_e.htm Accessed 18 December 2015)

The second symbol is the artworks. The statues of “Peace” and “Justice” welcome anyone who wants to enter the main building. The statue of a child sitting at the feet of a woman and offering an olive branch to her in “Peace”. In contrast, a woman with a serpent at her feet is sitting with a dove on her left hand, in “Justice”. “Peace” and “Justice” symbols were not chosen by coincidence: on the contrary, these symbols refer to values of the WTO. Every staff and visitor who wants to enter or leave the main building can see these symbols and remember the organization’s stated ideals of justice

and peace for the whole world. Moreover, concerning the Tiber statue, Tiberinus, the god of Tiber River, is reclining with an olive branch in his left hand while holding a jug with his right hand. Here, the olive branch infers peace as well. What is more, the door and window frames at the entrance are sculpted with symbols, such as harps, an anchor, a Libra, a torch, children, wheat, and a caduceus. Here, the caduceus refers to the mythological god Hermes who was the messenger of the gods and protector of merchants. This symbol makes reference to commerce and negotiation issues. The other symbols also refer to trade, agriculture, industry, and artistic subjects. The mural paintings and three-tiled panels refer to labour, agriculture and trade. Moreover, the DELFT ceramic panel notes that universal peace is possible “only if it is based upon social justice”, and in the middle of the panel, there is a male construction worker laying down the foundation bricks of the building. This symbol reflects upon one of the existential values of the WTO system as well, which aims at removing social injustices and bringing social and economic welfare to the whole world.

Moreover, as can be seen from participant responses to the 8th interview question⁹⁵, gender is not a concern for supervisors. They see themselves as professionals and do not have any categorization in their minds which is based on sexual characteristics.

“Being female, I do not believe in that and I do not think there should be any specific difference in their skills. I would not distribute them on the base of the gender and I would distribute them on the basis of their skill.”

“Part of the issues here is that in a sense the hierarchy determines partly and I do not honestly feel that there is anyone else looking for gender and is seeing to allocate the responsibility based on gender.”

“It is an interesting question. WTO is an equal opportunity employer definitely but there are certain tasks, which can be performed by either of the sex but we do not determine whether background, culture or sex. We never do like that. First of all, the merit comes, if you have equal merits, we look at diversification, equal representation from all members. We do not have any preference regarding sex.”

“To be frank, I have not really observed any significant differences between the genders here in the multinational teams or organizations. In my team there are male and female team members and I also have male and female bosses. I do

⁹⁵ 8th Interview question: How do you distribute roles, power and responsibility, between the genders in your team?

not think that there is any gender particularity and I have not observed any gender issue here.”

“In the multinational teams, there is no gender consideration. You just distribute work according to their capabilities rather than gender based. The distribution should not be gender based. I do not think that that is a constraint except for areas and whosoever says that they are willing to do it, let them do it. It is them to decide and not you. Let them decide.”

“Well, that is very classic, because I have two men who were basically doing the committee work, more the professional work, and one lady who is doing the administrative work. So, that’s pretty easy. I would like to have the admin do more work, on more intellectual things, but that does not seem to be possible. And the same vice-versa. There is work I cannot give to one person but to the other person but that person is too busy. So, I end up doing it.”

The 7th focus group discussion cartoon illustrates the opinions of the staff as regards the gender issue. The staff share the supervisors’ gender perspectives, which do not see gender as an issue. However, while distributing roles, power and responsibility, in lieu of gender, the staff see a state of inequality between the different ranks. According to some of them, professionals hold more privileges than others.

A: Certain things are done by certain people but not others. Because they required whatever tendencies, experience and so on. It also related with notion of belonging to the place. I have not seen gender issue much in this organization...

C: We came from legal side of the organization. We have more female issues. Focus narrowly on gender issue in our division. I do not see any kind of gender issue.

E: Majority are female in my division as well. There are only three males. It is more on the other side. For me this picture is not restricted to only gender. It is more about perception and expectations like you cannot do things, only this type of people can do this.

A, D: We see like that also.

C: I can make a very kind of provocative statement. Let’s paraphrase it: why you are doing this, these jobs are reserved for grade ten (P4, P5), the way around, why you are doing this are grade six jobs. These are artificial, come on what you are talking about.

A: So, it can be in both ways.

C: Exactly.

E: I actually have an example but I cannot say it because it is bit too obvious. I

will try to modify. Somebody is end up going certain places but the comment that I made wow you are sending here to this place. So, I just leave as general. But it just made the sound that it did not meet the profile to go to this particular country or region.”

Gender egalitarianism is pretty high on the WTO's priorities. Participation by women is greatly encouraged and women are employed in greater numbers than men while many hold executive positions. Likewise, it can be concluded that the aim of bringing justice to the world is also reflected within the organization, especially while distributing roles, power and responsibility. This reflection creates an espoused value, such as, *“there is no gender inequality in the organization”*.

Another reflection of espoused values, as “being able to make negotiations”, is seen in the relationship between supervisors and staff, and the staff amongst each other: while they are discussing issues, they do not seem to be stubborn about their opinions, and in lieu of direct rejection of any idea, they listen to other opinions and try to convince them in the desire to reach the common ground.

6.2.3 Basic Underlying Assumptions

The 3rd interview⁹⁶, and 4th focus group⁹⁷, questions, investigated participants' reaction towards unexpected events in the organization. According to them, unexpected events were part of the organizational culture. They did not get surprised when facing an unexpected event and assumed that at any time, anything could happen. Therefore, they developed a basic underlying assumption that, *“Unexpected events always occur in the organization”*.

The other basic underlying assumption is about motivation. Regarding staff's motivation, even though they worked in a multicultural environment, the participants of both interview and focus groups did not believe in the impact of national background on motivation issues. They assumed that *“the motivation concept is related to individual characteristics rather than nationalities”*.

⁹⁶ Third interview question: What do you think of unexpected events that happen while working with multinational teams?

⁹⁷ Fourth focus group question: What do you think about unexpected events that occur in your team?

Moreover, while the staff were working, they assumed that *“there is not much room for being creative”*. One participant of the focus group expressed this assumption, while the others seconded him:

“In our work, there is not much room for being creative. You have to achieve objectives and you do them, finishing the case and writing a report”.

This assumption directly reflects on staff work, instead of creating something different and innovative, they focus on just fulfilling the basic requirements of any given work; however, during interviews, this assumption was not shared by supervisors, and thence, it can be validated only for staff. Summary of all three layers of organizational culture are outlined in Table 6.1.

Artefacts	Artworks, environment, architectural design, open-door policy, friendly and comfortable work environment, not having a unique dress code, logo and artworks (symbols), verbal communication, English (speaking language), French (saluting language) and global trade lingo, four coffees and one lunch breaks, and discussions of work issues at the second (around 10.30) and fourth (around 15.30-16.30) coffee breaks (rituals).
Espoused Values	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fair and open trade - Peace and Justice - <i>There is no gender inequality in the organization</i> - Being able to make negotiations
Basic Underlying Assumptions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Unexpected events always occur in the organization - The motivation concept is related to individual characteristics rather than nationalities - There is not much room for being creative (for staff)

Table 6.1: Summary of the WTO Organizational Culture.

6.3 National Culture

While working with different nationalities, four out of six supervisors did not have any concerns about dealing with multicultural variance at their work environment. They had work experiences based on many years of knowhow for managing differently. Contrariwise, the other two supervisors stated that some nationalities have some sensitivities on certain issues, and some behave differently than expected, hence you have to be aware of cultural differences and develop an open communication channel. Apart from that, supervisors did not have any concerns regarding managing multicultural workforces.

The third interview⁹⁸, and fourth focus group questions⁹⁹, explored UA of participants. UA was pretty low amongst supervisors, and only two focus group participants. They did not display any concerns vis-à-vis these types of events and had gotten mostly used to them. Instead, they relied on social interactions. They sought advice from colleagues, used informal social interactions, and relied on team dynamics:

“We just deal with them and we do not panic. We deal with it in a way lead us to complete our task. At the end of the day, what it matters how the task can be completed in the best possible way. Depend on unexpected event, the manager has to see and review the best possible approach but not doing something or not panicking.”

“In my line, there are unexpected things are all the time actually and you almost get used to it and you just find a way to deal with it. I often consult with colleagues. For example, there are some areas wherein the unexpected event occurs and I consult the specialists or colleagues or sometimes consult someone who holds a higher position than me. You should decide how important it is. Then on the base of discussion try to find a way which address the issue.”

“Unexpected events can be defined in a number of ways. Unexpected events could be that particularly; I am facing now that one of my officers has got a job in a higher grade outside of the WTO which was not envisaged in the initial planning of the year. Some of the important tasks that are assigned to that particular person will need to be handled by someone else which I was not prepared. Finding a suitable replacement will take time and this is an unforeseen circumstance as to finding a suitable replacement is not easy. Unexpected events happen always in the multinational organizations...”

⁹⁸ 3rd interview question: What do participants think of unexpected events that happen while working with multinational teams?

⁹⁹ 4th focus group question: What do you think about unexpected events that occur in your team?

“Unexpected events will be the events that affects professional lives. Different nationalities have different cultures and therefore, the unexpected events in one culture might not be unexpected events in the other culture. For instance, in one culture someone can report off duty because your pet is sick and in another culture it is impossible to call your day off because your pet is sick. In another culture death or illness of an extended family member is a major cause of concern for the staff member which can cause absence from work. While in other cultures it is only death or illness of immediate family members can effect presence in the office or sudden events which cannot easily be determined or expected. So, all these factors can affect presence in the office and sudden events which cannot easily be determined. That is the advantage of spending time with other cultures and you start value other cultures as they value different things differently from those other cultures.”

“For any team, when you are preparing for some working in a project something unexpected is possible and the best thing for the manager and the team is to keep cool. You plan ahead, discuss all the details because discussing details would help you to avoid unexpected events. Even then, if they happen the most important thing is that to have plan B. Discuss Plan B, but if it happens then keep it cool and ask you team to not be perplexed, not get surprised and be ready. In the multinational organizations it is very important as here what we hold very important is team building. When we recruit people in the organization, the most important thing during an interview that we see in an individual is a team player or a solo flier. If we sense that he or she lacks the ability to work in a team, we would rather not take him or her because it is important that we work here as a team player.”

“Well, we have certain countries that want certain things and let’s say if there is an unexpected proposal, can take people by surprise, but then there’s always a reaction time too. So, we can only do so much to contain the surprise of something unexpected. Now, if all of a sudden say that, “This is an area of work that we’re proposing”, and someone else says, “Oh, well, we are also very interested in this”, well then, we have to do the work and we have to reorganize the priorities accordingly. So, we will deal with that.”

D: I just deal with it and try to learn something in the process and be better for the next time and not to plan too much also. (Focus group)

C: Well, it is pretty much the same everywhere I think. We just deal with it. Unexpected things happen here every day. (Focus group)

On the contrary, four out of six focus group participants showed high UA through facing problems, modifying plans, not showing emotional reactions, implementing contingency planning, and taking it all rationally. Herein, the main differences laid in the reaction of participants towards unambiguity. Yet, not all got surprised or lacked great concern when it came to ambiguous events. They saw dealing with these kinds of issues as a part of their main duties.

The fourth interview question¹⁰⁰ investigated HO dimension. In order to encourage good human nature, the supervisors utilized: performance assessment; recognizing cultural diversity; building friendships, trust and acceptability; teamwork; encouraging one single good action every day; striking a balance between kindness and firmness; developing social interaction; querying individuals' problems; setting an example; and being fair. There was a strong emphasis on providing social support and sensitivity training for staff on individual bases. Hence it could be concluded that HO was high amongst supervisors' priorities. In addition, while describing their relationship with members of their team at work and out of work, one supervisor did not separate his team members from his family members. Another embedded human orientation into his daily work and life. A third one perceived meeting outside with team members as an opportunity to strengthen his popularity. These three supervisors' preferences supported high HO. On the contrary, the other three showed low HO characteristics by placing some boundaries, such as, limiting social activities, and preference for a more objective-oriented relationship, upon their relations. These approaches were also in accordance with findings of high assertiveness dimensions, such as, valuing direct communication, and determining the rules of relationship.

Likewise, 2nd and 3rd focus group questions were related to HO aspect as well. Second question began with asking participants' opinion about the Machiavelli phrase¹⁰¹, and then asked their definition of power. The staff, especially while defining power concepts, showed low HO characteristics, such as high need for power possessions and self-interest priority. In addition, while they were responding to the third focus group question¹⁰², four out of six participants preferred not to meet with their supervisors out of work. To this effect, they wanted to separate work life from personal life. This preference can also be seen as part of a low HO process, for the reason that it demands more comfort and enjoyment for the self. Moreover, it shows an indication of high assertiveness through being dominant and deciding to implement one's own rules in a mutual relationship with supervisors. On the contrary, the other two did not have any concerns about meeting occasionally. According to this preference, it can be concluded that these two participants demonstrated high human orientation by travelling together and partaking at social events.

¹⁰⁰ 4th interview question: How do you encourage good human nature at multinational teams?

¹⁰¹ Machiavelli (2008: 65) phrase: "A Prince who wants to stay in power must necessarily learn to be other than virtuous and must make use of his knowledge, or not, according to circumstances."

¹⁰² Third focus group question: How is your relationship with your supervisor at work and out of work?

The 5th question, for both interview and focus groups, investigated how team spirits can be created in IOs. In order to create team spirit, the supervisors encourage high IC through team building exercises, such as, having more sociality, sharing more difficulties, and establishing multilateral decision making mechanisms¹⁰³. However, they do not believe that arranging some activities will lead directly to the result of providing team spirit. It requires a mutual effort which will be tried by leaders and followers, and as the participants infer, the key element in this process is communication.

“From time to time, we do several activities together to enhance team spirit in the team. Also, we do division meetings in every week what we did last week and what we need to do next week so that everyone is informed.”

“Well, in my experience a lot of are build up over a period of time. It is not something that you just join or build up shortly. The spirit that you need is to move issues forward and sometimes works are quite technical. When you need people for a long time, you develop the technical expertise to deal with these issues and that also helps bring out team spirit. You work on technological issues and you face challenges together. It brings you closer together and makes you ready to face next challenges.”

“Without a team-spirit you cannot conclude a work with requires team efforts. Now, there are two scenarios. All the team members are of equal calibre and they know that they can come up with a product by pulling up the sources of all the individuals in that team. In that case, team spirit works very well. Everybody knows that they are capable of doing it. In other situation, where you have staff who do not have equal strength but you still need kind of an outcome. In this scenario, it is important to define the boundaries of responsibilities and then kind of setup a target and then encourage exchange of views among each other and that way try find the best of a particular task. So, team spirit is important you definitely have to motivate through specification. For instance, if you are manager of some tasks once a job is done even we have our superiors, say who else is responsible for this good work. You have to sustain the spirit. From time to time, you engage try to build spirit with firstly communications with your senior how good is the team doing. Then, as a manager, you do evaluations of the officer you work with and you can say that a person is very good in team work it increases individual career prospects.”

“Team spirit is very important for the team and the success of the team a great extent depends on the team spirit. You need to have a team which can work together and most of time people do not realize that you create team not only by work but by trying to engage outside your work. For instance, units take time to have lunch together in the garden or by the beach or the lake. That is what team spirit is. Teams, which decide to go and have a beer together after work and not

¹⁰³ In addition to creation team spirit, the findings of Heffernan and Dundon (2016) and Heffernan et al. (2016) demonstrate that high usage of employee participation in decision making process ensure procedural justice perception and more positive work attitudes in an organization.

necessarily beer but drinks together and you will find that they have more team spirits. You will also find other teams who do not have any cohesion they only communicate within their team for a week or more when they need to and obviously in that situation you know that this team has no good spirits. The cohesion should not only be work but also it must be in social activities.”

“I think we have been discussing most of these things. Help them, encourage them and have chat with them, call them to your office, discuss project, involve them, ask them that please look this is the issue and I want your input on that and this is the way they develop sense of ownership and belongingness. They know that their thoughts have been included in the project plan, they feel good and acknowledge that and give them a pat on the back because the pat on the back always encourage them to give the best.”

“Well we try to have regular meetings, but they are not much about team spirit. We try to manage the work. And because we are a little bit small and so the whole division should have much more of a team spirit. So, we have a nice little working unit but we are too small to be influencing the others because we have 3 subunits in the actual division. So, it is not a real spirit but we get along very well and we help each other. So, I think in that sense, it is a day to day relationship that we have.”

On the other hand, (except for the one suggesting imposition of one’s beliefs on others), all others had a tendency to consolidate individual recognition. This latter point points to low IC characteristics in some of the following ways (which must be repeated every day): showing respect to individual team members; creating a need; providing transparent communications, and building trust between leader and staff; involving individuals in the thinking process; ensuring individual validation; showing fairness; developing a case by case approach; and encouraging competition:

“C: No. For me it is simple. At least in our team...No. In any team...team spirit can be created by showing each person what their individual tasks...what they individually do day to day, how it comes together to make something bigger and how they are connected. Not that everyone is compartmentalized and is doing his own stuff and has no idea what other people are doing. For me that is team spirit. That everyone is doing a part of it, and at the end it brings together the bigger team. That is great. That is team spirit for me. Everyone knows who is doing what and how it fits together.

A: I think certainly acknowledging everyone in the team. Making sure everyone’s content and feeling that they are appreciated and supported and listened to. That kind of makes people happy in teams and if something goes wrong they can have the confidence to say, ‘Hey, I am not happy with this. How can we address this?’ and then as a team, work together to make things better for everyone. Everyone

needs to be acknowledged and everyone's point needs to be listened to and addressed.

F: I think what they have said is correct, but a good team also needs a good leader, because sometimes teams do not always come together in a productive way. Like if I told someone to cook one meal, probably be a disaster, but a leader can always designate and delegate and also make sure, I do not know how, but bring everybody together around the table and understand the specific roles.

E: I think it comes down to respect and a common vision as C said. Knowing how my work contributes to the bigger picture. It comes down to that, and having respect for each individual in the team.

D: Yeah, I think it is about understanding. To understand what the others are doing exactly and how your work is helping them. They help you to achieve the goal of the project. And also, about sharing, because it is an experience at the end of a project. So, we are sharing the same experience altogether and understand that it is important to create the team.

Next question, in both interview and focus groups, examined how a sense of belonging can be ensured in the context of IOs. Encouragement of high IGC was seen in the responses of supervisors, such as, periodically demonstrating special care for their staff, recognizing their achievements, ensuring their involvement into projects, providing promotions, and giving them more responsibility. Likewise, the staff showed high IGC through emphasizing the role of the organization and its leaders in lieu of individual contributions, such as, integrating staff into daily projects by the leaders, utilizing communication in order not to isolate staff, recognizing multicultural work environment by leaders and the organization, and, consolidating corporate identity through a *work culture*.

The 7th focus group cartoon, and 8th interview question, explored how roles, power, and responsibility are distributed between the genders in a multinational work environment. While the supervisors distribute roles, power and responsibility, between genders, in lieu of a gender-based evaluation, they take into consideration skills, merits and capabilities. This preference is also verified by the responses of the staff, while they did not see any reasons for restrictions on any gender-based performance of a task, or in holding a position. Hence, it can be concluded that there is a high GE amongst all the participants.

The 8th focus group, and 9th and 10th interview questions, investigated participants' PO and FO. Whilst supervisors improved performance of their team members, they used a mix of low and high performance orientations, such as, establishing effective communication channels by being accessible and approachable, giving proper training, increasing the feeling of recognition, encouraging their promotion opportunity, acting consistent, being objective and firm, providing better career paths, allowing for a sense of autonomy, matching capacity with task, periodic reviews by progressive monitoring and feedback, explanation of expectations, and providing a sense of direction. As well, while pursuing their own objectives, they showed low PO characteristics as they placed emphasis on social relations and valuing harmony with their environment, but had high FO tendency, seen from their emphasis on timeframes and deadlines. In addition, three out of six defined themselves as future-orientated: one as present orientation; one as both present and future; and one emphasized the importance of combining all the past, present and future. On the other hand, while executing their objectives, the staff's main concern was to just finish the task at hand in as short a time as possible. They were not involved in any of the long term planning, and therefore, showed low FO. This finding also supported one of the underlying assumptions, that "there is not much room for being creative". Besides, the staff had high PO, due to expecting direct and explicit communication, and valuing competition.

The 13th interview question¹⁰⁴, and 9th focus group cartoon, discussions, focused on the impact of cultural differences on motivation. The effects of national culture were not considered as issues vis-à-vis staff motivation in the context of IOs by participants. As one of the participants in a focus group inferred "... *with time, you also find some sort of common attitudes across these different nationalities*". Also, one of the supervisors cited how national culture can transform into international culture:

"Well, there are people who approach work differently. Some people are more Laissez-Faire and not prone to taking on full control of their work, but I do not know if that has to do with the effect of cultural difference...You have to deal with each person individually...So you have to be able to deal with the people and the work at hand and then move forward. But for me it is not a stereotype and you have to deal with each individual. And since we are all living here, we all become more like each other anyway. Do you see what I mean? Over time. So, it is more of a family thing that happens. You do not keep your national identity. Actually,

¹⁰⁴ 13th interview question: Could you elaborate the difficulties of staff motivation from different nationalities?

the longer you stay in Geneva, you lose your national identity. You get a different awareness of cultural identities. Especially those people who have left their home countries and have lived abroad...That is why a lot of people, after 30 years of working here, they say, "Oh, I am so happy now to go back to my homeland", and then they go back to where they came from, the place is completely changed. They have changed, the place has changed and they do not like it and they do not feel at home. And then they come back here, because this is what they know. And this is where their friends are. So, the first thing when you take retirement is to see where you want to be. You should be where your friends are. And not your friends from childhood, maybe they are still your friends, but the friends that you actually have now. So, people change. And in international organizations like this where people stay for a long time, you become each other's family. And there are things that you do for each other...because we do not have family here. Our families are elsewhere. So, you become dependent on people who are from other countries. Which is a camaraderie and solidarity which is especial, which of course you would miss if you go back to your country, because it's so international but when you go back to your country everyone's so provincial. They go back to Canada, I do not say that I speak French, Spanish or German, you just do your thing. They do not care where you come from or what you know. They may ask you how this is, or how that is over there, but they have their own lives. That is why Geneva's so special."

Herein, the supervisor places emphasis on the "living abroad factor". This inference corresponds to the Marxist dialect as well. When national culture clashes with organizational culture, the internal struggle in this clash can be identified as the 'living abroad' factor.

Most IO personnel end up leaving their home country and find themselves living in a number of foreign places for long periods of their lives. Consequently, they have to try to adapt to a new multicultural workplace. It should be noted here that the summary of WTO participants' national cultural characteristics is shown in Table 6.2.

Dimensions	UA	HO	Power Distance	IC	IGC	GE	PO	Assertiveness	FO
Degree	Low and high	Low and high	Low and high	Low and high	High	High	Low and high	High	Low and high

Table 6.2: Summary of WTO Participants' National Cultural Characteristics.

6.4 Power

There are two main approaches among the supervisors regarding the power concept. Firstly, four out of six saw power as a rank in the hierarchy and defined it as hard power. According to the level of rank in the hierarchy, the extent of power increased or decreased. The remarks of supervisors were also consistent with observational findings, because the main perquisites are distributed according to the level of staff and their status. For instance: some P4, and all P5 level supervisors have separate rooms, P5 and above supervisors have carpets and special furniture in their rooms, and directors have reserved parking places, slightly bigger bureaux, and their own printers and secretaries. It seems that at the least, holding a P4 level is necessary for receiving some perquisites. In addition, the main power need of the participants is perceived by status. Holding a high rank or position is also inferred as a recognition of success. As well, the encouragement of vertical hierarchy supports a more unequal distribution of power, and as a consequence, it can be inferred that a high level of power distance is dominant amongst the participants.

Secondly, two out of six supervisors identified power as a collective element. According to them, even though a supervisor holds a high position in the hierarchy, if his team fails to produce, he would be hard-pressed to enjoy any real power in the organization. Thereby, his level of power depends directly on the production level of his team members, and accordingly, his power strengthens with their sharper performance. This collective power understanding, with its characteristic of equal power distribution, leads to soft power understanding and a low level distance.

Moreover, in the second question for the focus group, staff made comments on the following Machiavelli (2008: 65) phrase:

“A prince who wants to stay in power must necessarily learn to be other than virtuous and must make use of his knowledge or not according to circumstances.”

Five out of six participants were in agreement with this phrase and one wanted to make no comments on the subject. A participant did draw a line between his personal and private lives and agreed with this phrase in his professional life. Yet, he would never

follow such principles in his private life with his family. Another participant explained his opinions through the following comments:

“The resources, who gets them is the one that manages to convince. It is one manifestation, but sentence is about power as you have seen. Basically says that if you want to stay in power you have to be, you know, should not be virtuous, you cannot be a nice person to everyone, and you have to work in the shadows in some ways.”

From the comments of staff vis-à-vis the Machiavelli phrase put to them, we can infer that a majority of the participants support the Machiavellian teleological approach which does not make any objections to the manipulation of truth for the sake of gaining power.

6.5 Leadership

The eleventh interview question¹⁰⁵ explored supervisors' definition of effective leadership. According to the supervisors, the main effective leadership characteristics are, being inspirational, persuasive, motivational, visionary, fair, trustworthy, knowledgeable, nice, a good example, having the ability to set directions, pushing staff for that extra mile, having integrity, and communicating effectively. Furthermore, one of the participants put an emphasis on sharing information with team members. On the other hand, when the staff debated the 1st focus group question (exploring effective leadership), they emphasized the role of communication, especially the ability of communicating with different levels and staff members. In addition, the leader must communicate clearly and be able to motivate the staff by this means. The second stated leadership characteristic was to be able to provide a vision that would help keep the staff on the right path. The third characteristic, as one participant aptly noted, referred to the aspect of decision-making:

“...a decision maker for me, that is something very key, somebody who can take a decision and somebody who knows exactly what needs to be done.”

Yet one other participant believed that this decision-making ability must be carried out in a fair manner:

¹⁰⁵ 11th interview question: What is your personal definition of effective leadership?

“For me fairness, I agree with all this, fairness is very important, I think I would rather have a boss who I think is fair. Such that, I feel that whatever good happens through the workplace, that it is to be distributed in a fair fashion, I do not have to worry about it. I do not have to lobby to get my share of that. I have to be confident about that and I could focus on my work.”

In addition, honesty, being able to think strategically, driving the mission, and taking responsibility for one's decisions no matter what the outcome, were other characteristics seen as necessary for an effective leader.

As the supervisors defined effective leadership, they mostly leaned towards the charismatic/value-based leadership characteristics, such as being inspirational, visionary, a good example, etcetera. On the other hand, one of the participants encouraged a team-oriented style by placing emphasis on sharing information with team members. When the staff defined an effective leader, they placed emphasis on having the ability to communicate well, think strategically, and have vision and honesty, be a good decision maker, have a sense of fairness, and take responsibility for one's decisions. Overall, it can be concluded that these characteristics define the charismatic/value-based leadership style.

Apart from the findings of the interviews and focus groups, the observation results show the tendency of supervisors having the participative style of leadership. For example, consensus is the main decision-making tool among member states of the WTO. Each country has the power to block the decision of the other 160. To this effect, the supervisors hold a facilitator role in the discussions and try to find a middle ground among member states. In this context, the ability to negotiate, coordinate, and conciliate, are seen as important values for the supervisors. These values also reflect upon their relationship with the staff. During their discussions, the supervisors did not seem stubborn about their opinions, and in lieu of direct rejection of an idea, listened and tried to convince them in the desire to reach consensus. They kept open communication channels, showed respect to staff opinions, tried to find a middle ground, and worked for their consent.

6.6 Motivation

The 13th interview question¹⁰⁶ explored the impact of a multicultural work environment on staff motivation. The supervisors did not see any effects of cultural differences on staff motivation. According to them, cultural differences must be known and respected, but motivation concept was related to individual perception. Likewise, the 9th focus group question¹⁰⁷ investigated effects of different national backgrounds on work motivation, as well:

A: There are probably positions which are culturally imbued, but it is more about personalities. I would not say that if I am looking at the way I manage people and motivation in a room, I do not look at them and break them down according to nationalities and see how will I target them. I do it because I know that so and so tends to be a bit depressive about things and therefore how to I counteract that according to the character and I do not link that to where they came from.

C: I agree.

A: I mean there are of course stereotypes...

E: Well, how will you see it like, a Senegalese person might be more joyful, and some other nationality might be noisier?

C: No. No. No. For example, you motivate people with different stuff. I can say this because I participated in a study when I was doing my Masters, about motivation and what actually motivates people and like how you can. And there was the one that came first was being correctly paid, you know. Like no matter what their nationality, being paid well. And then after, there was some other who said, having intellectually challenging work. You know. Some other. It can be different. But I think all those reasons were based on personality and not nationality, but there are many different ways you can motivate people, like by giving challenging work, by paying correctly, by giving them work in the field, by giving them work at the office, depending on what they want, and what they excel at. And that is not based on nationality."

When participants who had come from different backgrounds elaborated difficulties vis-à-vis motivation, two out of six inferred that they had difficulty adapting to the work culture, but the others posited that these difficulties were not related to national background and motivation but actually an individually influenced concept.

¹⁰⁶13th interview question: Could you elaborate the difficulties of staff motivation from different nationalities?

¹⁰⁷ 9th focus group question: Could you elaborate difficulties of staff motivation from different national backgrounds?

The 14th interview question focused on specific examples of increasing or decreasing motivation of staff. Based on supervisors' previous experiences, the demotivating factors are, unfairness, unrewarded work, disregarding achievements, wrong promotion policy, lack of communication, and disseminating false hopes. On the other hand, motivating factors are, being appreciated and explicitly highlighting achievement of the staff, permitting autonomy, setting shorter timeframes and achievable goals, being nice, taking responsibility for staff's failures, and examining new topics.

The 15th interview question¹⁰⁸ examined the most effective motivational tools of the supervisors. Its findings can be categorized as monetary and non-monetary. Monetary tools are financial advantages, such as subsidies for rent, higher salaries, and performance bonuses. On the contrary, non-monetary tools are public recognitions of achievements, such as apprising superiors or publishing a contribution list, providing regular motivation through provision of additional responsibilities and titles, ensuring a career development program and promotion opportunities, arranging opportunities for organizational representation in different parts of the world, and providing training and job satisfaction through emphasizing PSM and contribution to the international community. In addition, the final focus group question examined: "How can staff be motivated in the context of IOs?" Like supervisors, in order to increase staff motivation, participants offered two types of motivational tools, as monetary and non-monetary. Firstly, monetary tools include the use of promotions or raises in salary, but it is also accepted that these are not realistic measurements in the consideration of organizational capability. Accordingly, one of the staff expressed that monetary tools are not proper motivating factors for them as after a while they get used to getting them and they lose their initial motivating effects. Secondly, non-monetary tools provide horizontal changes in staff positions, giving them more power and responsibility, particular titles, paying attention to their needs by the organization, and using the carrots (positive tools) and sticks (negative feedback) approach. Some other characteristics include: showing appreciation; fairness while distributing power and making decisions as regards staff and their career development; avoiding demotivating behaviours; establishing communication; performing realistic job-matching; and, providing opportunity for flexible time usage, such as special leaves and supplementary holidays.

¹⁰⁸ 15th interview question: What do you think are the most effective motivational tools for staff in the context of international organizations?

Furthermore, during observations, it was seen that a large number of posters were posted in the atrium with photos of the staff, Director Generals, Chairs of the Ministerial Conferences, and General Council Chairs. Many organizations have a tendency to only show photos of their senior executives, but as the personnel number at the WTO is higher than many other organizations, this institution chooses to display every staff's photograph on its large posters. It is for certain that the staff will feel more motivated and a part of the organization with such gestures.

Regarding McClelland's need of motivation, while dealing with unexpected events, the supervisors show high affiliation need by relying on teamwork, consulting other colleagues, experts and superiors, and conducting team discussions in pursuit of solutions. Besides, while encouraging good human nature, their behaviour indicates high affiliation need as well: they demonstrate sensitivity to staff's work, private lives, individual identities, and encourage social interaction amongst the team members. The supervisors' tendency to show high affiliation need is also seen in their efforts for creating team spirit. Regarding this issue, they encourage holding team meetings, not only at the organization, but also in social life. In order to motivate staff, they emphasize the importance of publicly recognising doers of good works.

Furthermore, a sense of belonging also demonstrates a requisite affiliation need of the organization. Three out of six participants support high affiliation need characteristics by acting as if their staff are members of their family through caring for their individual problems and assuring they have a social life out of work. Except for these supervisors, the other three show low affiliation need characteristics as they prefer a more professional and objective oriented relationship, with a desire to be respect-centric. They prefer limited socialization (e.g. only for birthdays, lunches and drinks). However, with the exception of these three supervisors' desire for limited socialization out of work, overall, it can be concluded that high affiliation need is common among the supervisors.

Conversely, four out of six staff do not have any out of work relations with their supervisors. They are happy with this situation and show low affiliation need by making clear differentiations between work and personal relations while not seeing any reason for seeing each other after work. Out of the other two participants, one states that they attend out of work encounters, like social events and trips, while the other one holds an

acquaintance type relationship with the supervisor, hence they meet occasionally. Likewise, again, five out of six participants demonstrated low affiliation need by embracing unexpected events and relying on rules. Only one participant showed high affiliation need by relying on other colleagues and on social interaction.

“In my line, there are unexpected things are all the time actually and you almost get used to it and you just find a way to deal with it. I often consult with colleagues. For example, there are some areas wherein the unexpected event occurs and I consult the specialists or colleagues or sometimes consult someone who holds a higher position than me. You should decide how important it is. Then on the base of discussion try to find a way which address the issue.”

The respondents agreed upon the importance of creating team spirit, but when they recommended approaches for its provision, in lieu of showing a desire to be part of the group, they encouraged individual recognition, and hence it can be concluded again that this is the characteristic of low affiliation need. On the other hand, in the context of a sense of belonging, the participants assumed that responsibility belonged to leaders and the organizational culture; this preference is also consistent with low affiliation need. To sum up, differing with the supervisors, the staff have low affiliation need.

As concerning achievement need, two supervisors use power of social interaction through persuading colleagues, subordinates and superiors to contribute, while the other four mainly prefer to set realistic objectives and timeframes. On the other hand, the staff posited that there is not much room for creativity at their jobs and they just do whatever work is given them. One participant does not think that she is adept at reaching her long term project deadlines, hence she gives herself her own shorter time limits:

“For me it is easy. You break it down and do it in a systematic way. If it is a big task, you break it down to small manageable tasks and give yourself deadlines and it is done. I mean for example now we have to do a very interesting job of cleaning our department data which is more than a 1000 entries. So it is easier when you have that big amount to break it down and know what you can do. For example, we shared it in country. I do Liberia. She does Sierra Leone. Another person does Guinea. So once it is broken down like this, then you can break it down further yourself. You know, and then make it easier. For example, I have 200 data to clean. I can just divide it by 10 days and do a certain amount a day and I am done, you know. For me, that’s how it works in a systematic manner. It makes it easier.”

Due to static organizational structure and limited promotion options, achievement need is seen in the attempts of fulfilling the standard requirement of the given works.

6.7 Conclusion

The WTO buildings have been adorned by a diverse range of artworks. The organization outlines its vision, values and the reason of existence through utilizing effectively symbols. In addition, a synthesis of history and modernity, and security concerns are well reflected through the physical settings of the building. It can be easily seen that there is an official open door policy, which encourages verbal communication. While staff prefer to use English as the main communication language, French is utilized for salutation and in order to involve in work discussions, it is necessary to have a basic knowledge of global trade lingo. There is no unique dress code in the organization. The main rituals are seen in breaks; lunch and four coffee breaks per day are taken by staff. Staff discuss work issues at 2nd and 4th coffee breaks. These explained artefacts indicate characteristics of a relaxed working atmosphere.

It can be concluded that fair and open trade, peace and justice, being able to make negotiations and gender neutralism are seen as the main espoused values and beliefs of the staff. In addition, “Unexpected events always occur in the organization; the motivation of the staff is related to individuality rather than nationalities; and there is not much room for being creative (for staff)” are the basic underlying assumptions of participants.

When we analyse and interpret the findings of the WTO about national culture, from a dialectical standpoint we can say that national culture and organizational culture are gripped in a struggle of opposites; two ideas that come together, and by doing so, lead to the emergence of a new process (i.e. international culture). The Marxist dialectic looks at social transformation, in contrast to the Hegelian dialectic, which focuses on the struggle of opposites, as regards ideas. In the context of this research, the unity of two contradictions – organizational and national culture – leads to change and transformation in the form of international culture.

In addition, staff define characteristics of power as the ability to use resources, be precise, have a clear mind, follow good strategies with determination and without

much clamour, be able to motivate people, stimulate staff's resolve, loose control, take responsibility for decisions, achieve an output, and follow through no matter what. These definitions correlate with their comments on the Machiavelli expression. Remarks by research participants illustrate characteristics of teleological ethics. They do not focus on moral relevance of an action in the context of power as their primary concern is having a consequence in any case whatsoever.

While the findings of interviews and focus group forward the charismatic/value-based leadership style, the observation results indicate the participative style of leadership. We can infer that combination of both leadership types can be effective in the WTO. Finally, the work motivation level of the participants is quite high and the organization encourages more motivated workforce through providing a comfortable and relaxed working atmosphere. The participants see motivation as an entity, which can be differentiated according to the character and needs of staff.

CHAPTER 7

THE UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE ON TRADE and DEVELOPMENT (UNCTAD)

7.1 Introduction

The UNCTAD was founded in 1964 as the main UN body concerned with trade and development issues. The foci of the organization are globalization and development, trade and commodities, investment and enterprise, economic progress of developing and least developed countries, technology, and logistics. The organization is responsible to its 193 member states for developing macroeconomic policies for the purpose of ending global economic inequalities and encouraging people-centric sustainable development. Its main work motto is, “think, debate and deliver.” <http://unctad.org/en/Pages/AboutUs.aspx>).

Five supervisors from different managerial levels, nationalities, and departments, voluntarily took part in the research. The researcher conducted all the interviews: the shortest took 20.23 minutes; the longest lasted 47.18 minutes; and, the average was 30.91 minutes. On the other hand, five staff of different age, from diverse nationalities and departments, participated in the focus group discussions. While the researcher was carrying out focus group discussions as a moderator, a professional research assistant recorded with a voice recorder and took handwritten-notes. Focus-group activity kept on for 1.21 minutes. In order not to reveal the identities of the participants, no names were mentioned. Moreover, the researcher, as a non-participant observer, followed a three-day working schedule at the facilities of the UNCTAD. Those findings were analysed and interpreted, as explained in detail in the previous chapter.

7.2 Organizational Culture

7.2.1 Artifacts

The UNCTAD, as a UN body, is located at the main headquarters of the United Nations in Geneva (Palais des Nations). In addition, the UNCTAD logo is on all office doors: The UN globe with the UNCTAD logo underneath it and also the UN logo is seen on every floor of the organization as well. To these effects, it is rather difficult to separate UNCTAD’s specific proprietorship and characteristics.

In order to enter, an identity card and security check are required. Following a long wait, UN security staff check a confirmation email from the internal contact, take a photograph and register personal information. Indeed, once an entrance card is provided, a visitor can enter the UN main headquarters. Technology is effectively utilized in dealing with the security concerns of the organization. Following a five-minute walk, the visitor reaches “Building E” which is utilized as the main UNCTAD facility. There are ten floors above and one below the ground. Restaurant/cafeteria, meeting rooms, and technical and IT staff-rooms, are all on the ground floor. Another cafeteria, computers and internet for visitors, and meeting rooms, are all on the first floor. Restaurant and cafeterias on the ground and first floors are for common usage for all other UN staff, but there is another cafeteria on the sixth floor which is utilized only by UNCTAD workforce. In order to socialize, there are many options for the staff. There is a very official work environment in the organization, but in the restaurant and cafeterias, there is a difference, like day and night: in contrast to a dull and bureaucratic office environment, the restaurant and cafeterias are chirpy and cheerful.

Art exhibition saloons and meeting rooms are located on the third floor. In addition, some antique statues appropriated from the Egyptian Museum are exhibited on the third floor. There are guided tours in Palais des Nations which receive much attention from external visitors while providing a sophisticated image of the work environment.

In line with a belief in social responsibility, the UNCTAD does provide some facilities for its handicapped staff, such as special restrooms and transportation prospects. As well, there is a very large green garden on the palace grounds, and interestingly, one finds peacocks roaming freely, even near the main entrance. Neither staff nor the peacocks show any reactions to each other. Also, I got the impression that the UN encourages natural life in providing freedom for animals on their grounds and keeping a well-groomed garden to complement their classic architecture.

Regarding the enclosed office spaces at the organization, staff are only forced to share according to the availability at the departments, and at most with one other person. Nonetheless, some interns share a room per three persons. In addition to P5 and above executives, if there are any available rooms at the department, P4 level staff also get their own office. Most of the office doors are closed. If there are no previous acquaintances amongst the staff, interaction is very limited at the office, even between

two colleagues who share the same room. When supervisors want to see their staff, even if their offices be side by side, they mostly communicate either by email or by phone. When staff need to see their supervisors, if it is not an emergency situation, they send them emails as well, for meeting up. Amongst the staff, they call each other by phone, and for less serious or long term issues, they use email. The main communication tool of the organization is electronic mail. The staff salute each other when meeting in the halls, but generally, there is a high level of formal interaction between them, even with those in the same section. If there is nothing important to discuss with other staff, they prefer to focus on their work and do not share any information with other colleagues. There is an implicit closed-door policy. Most of the staff close their doors and work behind closed doors. Despite it being an intergovernmental organization, UNCTAD connotes a “library”. Furthermore, newcomers cannot easily mesh with current staff. Senior staff do not accept newcomers into their social environment, especially if they are consultants or interns. Senior staff go to drink coffee or eat lunch together in two or three person groups and do not invite newcomers to join them.

Moreover, dull bureaucracy is one of the main characteristics of the organizational culture. One participant posits it as an obstacle toward change attempts at the organization:

“I feel that the bureaucracies in these places like the UN are so stringent that a lot of managers are handcuffed and so there are certain things that necessarily you cannot change or it would be very difficult to do so...”

Another participant emphasizes the negative role of bureaucracy as well:

“I find it funny that they were able to put aside their cultural barriers in IOs but they created the bureaucracy and created barriers that should be easier to remove but that is the problem that you see here.”

Even though there are six official languages¹⁰⁹, English is preferred in daily work discussions, but at times when some meet each other on the elevator or in the halls, they might salute each other in French. In addition, special terms, such as gender responsiveness, sustainable development, trade facilitation, and other trade and development terms and acronyms, such as SDG (Sustainable Development Goals), GEM

¹⁰⁹ There are six official languages of the UN: English, French, Spanish, Russian, Chinese and Arabic.

(Gender Equality Mainstreaming), TC (Technical Cooperation), GE (Green Economy), and ICB (Initial Cross Border) are readily utilized. In order to be involved in discussions, it is necessary to have a basic trade and development terminology notion.

Staff mostly prefer smart casual clothing but directors wear business attire: male directors wear suit and tie and female directors prefer suits with a skirt. Similarly, all the staff in the forum and meetings wore business attire as well. Except for directors and higher level executives, most other staff wore smart casual attire. While old age male staff mostly have daily shaves, young and middle-aged ones have two or three day beards.

As a ritual, the staff gets four coffee breaks per day: around 09:30, 10:30, 13:30 and 16:00. A coffee break takes 20-25 minutes on average. Staff begin to go to lunch between 12:00 and 14:00 and generally return to their offices by the latter time. Furthermore, as another ritual, they discuss work issues only during the 2nd coffee break (10:30) and do not do so at other coffee and lunch breaks. There is an obvious twist in the organizational climate between work and social dwellings. The staff work in their offices and only socialize at places reserved for socialization.

7.2.2 Espoused Beliefs and Values

The main work motto of the organization is, “think, debate and deliver”. Related to these principles, published papers are seen as the main product of the institution and are exhibited at almost every corner of the grounds. The organizational culture encourages individual progress of the staff through publishing in its publications. Herein, an espoused belief emerges: *“In order to be recognized by the organization, a research paper must be published”*.

Moreover, the UN not only encourages gender equality for the world but also inside its own organisations. This policy is also reflected within the UNCTAD’s seventeen global goals for sustainable development, as its fifth goal (gender equality). Consistent with this policy, all the research participants approve this as well. Here, an espoused value emerges as: *“There is no gender inequality in the organization”*.

7.2.3 Basic Underlying Assumptions

According to the responses to the 3rd interview¹¹⁰, and 4th focus group¹¹¹ questions, all participants assume that unexpected events could occur at any moment. In line with this understanding comes the basic underlying assumption which is taken for granted: *“Unexpected events always occur in the organization”*.

As can be seen below, the organization has some problems in bringing sense of belonging to their staff, such as, short term contracts, dull bureaucracy, and feeling of exclusiveness:

“E: You definitely need to be valued and respected, in terms of you saying, “Well, I can work here but I should also be complemented by benefits and to feel included”. I just feel that consultants, short terms, and intern staff do not really feel included within the UN.

D: Absolutely. And I feel that the bureaucracies in these places like the UN are so stringent that a lot of managers are handcuffed and so there are certain things that necessarily you cannot change or it would be very difficult to do so. But then there are other things a manager can do to make you feel a part of there. For example, as an intern, you react positively to just an invitation to attend a meeting so you get exposure to what they are there to talk about. That is a feeling of inclusiveness, even if you are a different class of employee. I have been lucky as I have always felt like a part of any team I have been on, but I have talked to other colleagues at the bank who are not invited to staff meetings that pertains to the work they are doing as practically speaking they are a staff member and they are doing work. They are also not part of the email list because they are consultants and they say, “Well, I have been here for three years, why cannot I get on the list”. So, there are things a manager can do even within the confines of a rigid bureaucracy that can help foster a sense of inclusiveness.

A: For example, in that case I agree that it is very important to see that. I got here with the thought that, yeah, it is the UN and it is perfect, and it is nothing close to perfect, but right now I have realized that we do not belong here because we are not getting the opportunity to be a part of here. Even though we are here right now, as soon as my contract ends, I have to leave here and cannot come back for at least 6 months. That is a horrible thing. And as a consultant you only get 3 or 6 month contracts and can extend it for 3 months, but then have to be without work for 3 months after that and then you have to wait and see if they want you again. Of course, I do not belong. You have to be

¹¹⁰ Third interview question: What do you think of unexpected events that happen while working with multinational teams?

¹¹¹ Fourth focus group question: What do you think about unexpected events that occur in your team?

very well connected to get a contract and benefits. But even then, it is such an uphill struggle.

E: I have a very good friend. She worked at ILO for 5 years as a consultant and then she got a permanent contract. But when she got it, she said, "Screw you guys, I am leaving". Instead she got such a good job with an intergovernmental organization in Stockholm. She had enough. She was a great trade economist, absolutely brilliant at what she did, but she felt that they just siphoned off all her talent, all the reports she wrote for 5 years. And when they decided to give her a permanent contract.

D: Well, then it feeds on itself. They are not going to feel like part of the team, so they do not integrate and then other people are going to look at that person and say, "Well, they are only going to be here for a little while, so why am I going to put the effort..."

A: Then you do not even want to finish it. Because I looked at my boss and said that I want stability and he said you're only 24, what do you want stability for? And I said, yes, I am 24 but I do not want to depend on my family. And he said, "Well, if you can, just travel and just enjoy it..." And I said, "No, I really need a job that gives me stability. I need my permit. I need my visa to stay here". And I want to go to the PI and say, "You know what? I do not want stability. I'm only ... I only have a three month contract. Can you give me a visa for one year?" Of course, they are going to say no. That is my definition for stability. I need to have a contract at least for one year, you will need to stay there. So, I really do not feel part of the team.

B: I find it funny that they were able to put aside their cultural barriers in international organizations but they created the bureaucracy and created barriers that should be easier to remove but that's the problem that you see here.

C: Yeah, I think the problem is also that the UN to the outside represents itself as an organization that cares about people who work there and the only thing that you get to know before you get here is that they give language classes, yoga classes, have a doctor, a great community, that they have a lot of benefits. That if you have children that they pay for the education and all that image that at least people in Germany have of the UN and of the benefits for people working there and then it is really demoralizing and just sad."

As regards the distribution of benefits, staff who hold permanent contracts and professional status have privileged remunerations, such as, higher salaries, dependency allowance, educational grants, home leave, and family visits. Hence the others' feeling of being excluded, and this differentiation in staff compensations, causes another fundamental supposition that: *"There are two types of staff in the organization: professionals and others"*.

In addition, while staff try to achieve their objectives, they rely on their leader and place too much emphasis on the leadership factor:

D: I would say first you have to clearly define your objectives. If you cannot do that, then you have a leadership problem. So if I go to work and think, "Well, I am not sure what I'm supposed to get done today". That is a problem, and I think that depends on the manager, the work plan and everything else.

E: To be honest with you, I have had a couple of those, like, "What am I going to have to get done today?" But I think the best thing then is just to ask your boss. If they are not clear, then there is clearly a leadership problem and the objectives are not being set. There is a very murky area as far as what are your objectives are. At least that is s what I feel."

Herein, another basic underlying assumption emerges that: *"In order to achieve our objectives, we need a pretty good leader"*.

Some of the interviewees provided their opinions about the impact of national culture on staff motivation. They did not underestimate the existence of different nationalities in an international work environment but they also did not evaluate national culture as an important factor that influences staff motivation at IOs.

"...I do not see a difference between the kinds of people we want...whether they come from a Brazilian university or an American university or a British...I mean, there are differences in writing. However, we write in English and for some people it is not necessarily their first language but that is a technical issue and not a cultural issue as such and I really do not think that is an issue. That is because people come here and they want to be part of this project and this project is defined professionally and they are fully...they know what it is and in that sense, I do not find cultural differences to characterize the challenges and problems they face here. I really do not."

"Again, there are differences and difficulties to motivation and some of them may be due to nationalities but in most of the cases it has to do with other reasons than nationality. It is hard for me to believe that nationality is the main difficulty that impedes the performance of your team or is in the way of achieving your objectives or that of the team. People are very complex combination of very unique histories and it is up to you to capture their richness and complexities of each and every one. You do take into account one of the factors behind each staff and the motivation of the staff. One of those factors may be education which may be given nationally but even within the same nation, you have different kinds of education. Same culture influences motivation as well, but again, it is a complex mix of many variables."

"...Of course, you always have your roots, nationality and culture, but by being here and working here for some years, you kind of, you get naturally flexible."

The final basic underlying assumption regards motivation. As the participants have lived for long periods in a multicultural work environment, they come to assume that:
“National background does not make an impact on motivation of the staff in the context of any international organization.”

The summary of three cultural layers is demonstrated in Table 7.1

Artefacts	Dull bureaucracy, high security concerns, artworks, natural life, twist in the organizational climate between work and social dwellings (official working environment and cheerful restaurant and cafeterias), closed door policy, formal interaction, connoting a library, publication and logos (symbol), non-verbal communication, English (speaking language), French (saluting language), trade terminology, four coffees and one lunch breaks, and discussion of work issues at the second break (rituals).
Espoused Values	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - There is no gender inequality in the organization - In order to be recognized by the organization, a research paper must be published.
Basic Underlying Assumptions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Unexpected events always occur in the organization - National background does not make any impact on motivation of staff in the context of IOs - In order to achieve our objectives, we need a pretty good leader - There are two types of staff in the organization: professionals and others.

Table 7.1: The Summary of the UNCTAD’s Organizational Culture.

7.3 National Culture

Three out of five supervisors did not have any concerns when it came to the issue of working with a large diversity of nationalities, and placed an emphasis on professionalism. While managing staff and executing their duties, difference in nationality never comes into the equation. They just focus on reaching professional standards of a given work. In lieu of motivation, the other two supervisors remarked on the impact of

nationalities on staff personality. Hence, they exerted extra effort to understand cultural diversities and to be careful about cultural sensitivities.

The third interview¹¹², and fourth focus group questions¹¹³ investigated UA dimension. The supervisors saw unexpected events as part of their work, and relied on rules, preferred to find solutions through social interactions, such as, bringing senior staff together with team members to discuss the issues, gather as much information as possible, and remain flexible. Likewise, two out of five staff had more of an emotional reaction towards them. They had gotten used to dealing with unexpected events. Instead of relying on rules and plans, they preferred to find solutions through social interaction and discussion. Therefore, it could be concluded that their UA is low. Contrariwise, in order to solve the problem at hand, three out of five relied on coherent action plans. Hence they had a tendency to show high UA.

According to answers to the fourth interview question¹¹⁴, while the supervisors encourage good human nature in their teams, they placed emphasis on values, such as open interaction, tolerance, concerns, generosity, flexibility, respect, autonomy, being appreciated, and positive feedback. Moreover, one of the supervisors emphasized the importance of establishing good hiring selection practices. Overall, they showed high human oriented characteristics through giving importance to others' interests and values. On the other hand, the 7th interview question¹¹⁵ clarified their relations with team members out of work. While developing relationships with their staff outside of work, they showed low HO through not preferring limited out of work relationships and placing certain borders between work and private association. What is more, they showed high assertiveness by placing social distance according to their preferences and developing work related bonds with their staff. On the contrary, the staff demonstrated high HO levels through preferring to have out of work experiences with their colleagues. Even though such social activity offers were not readied by the organization, they showed consent to take part on these kinds of occasions. This type of conciliatory behaviour found its roots in low assertiveness amongst the participants.

¹¹² 3rd interview question: What do you think of unexpected events that happen while working with multinational teams?

¹¹³ 4th focus group question: What do you think about unexpected events that occur in your team?

¹¹⁴ 4th interview question: How do you encourage good human nature at multinational teams?

¹¹⁵ 7th interview question: How is your relationship with members of your team at work and out of work?

The 5th interview and focus group questions explored ways of creating team spirits in IOs. While two out of five supervisors showed high IC through putting an emphasis on collective actions, such as, social activities, going on missions together, and sharing a vision, the other three demonstrated low IC through highlighting individualism amongst the staff. On the other hand, sharing mission and sacrifice, mutual respect, and having a reasonably good leader, were the main recommendations by staff, to have team spirit blossom. In addition, the staff complained about the organization's close-door policy: no interaction between the staff; never being introduced to team members; communication problems; lack of equity, leadership and direction; salary delays; being misjudged by supervisors; and creating two classes of staff members (professional, and all the others). They had the potential to demonstrate high IC characteristics, but due to these enumerated problems they did not find any opportunity to fulfil this prospect.

The 6th interview and focus group questions investigated how to ensure a sense of belonging in IOs. Supervisors highlighted needing to be felt, respected and included in group works; desiring to have permanent contracts; and receiving the advantages of organizational benefits. They encouraged high IGC while rousing a sense of belonging amongst their staff. Their main tools were, interacting actively, creating a supportive environment, emphasizing the importance of collective output and achievement, building common interest through linking personal motivation and general goals of the organization, empowering, keeping the team informed, and celebration after major achievements. Likewise, staff highlighted the need to, be understood, respected and included in group works; have permanent contracts; and, take advantage of organizational benefits. Regarding the sense of belonging, again, even though organizational culture encouraged low in-group collectivism through giving too much importance to individual achievements (such as publishing papers), the participants had high in-group collectivism values, such as: needing to be understood, respected, and included in group works; desiring to have permanent contracts; and, taking advantage of organizational benefits.

The 7th focus group, and 8th interview questions investigated gender issues in the context of IOs. As can be seen below, all the participants showed high GE through minimizing gender inequality. This predilection is also supported by both the UN Headquarters and the UNCTAD. The UN put into force a new policy to raise up the sex ratio balance to an equal footing (50-50), especially as regards managerial positions.

“It is determined by the hierarchy that we have. If you are a section head, you are in charge of the section, regardless of gender. We have a head of a section which is a woman and she is in charge, but not because she is a woman, but because she applied and she got the job. So, I do not think we allocate responsibility according to gender specifically, but the policy of the organization from UN down to UNCTAD now, is because women are 37% of senior staff, there is a concerted effort to recruit women. For example, there is one senior position, director position in my division, was not filled until now because New York insisted that it has to be a woman. So, we are looking for one. So, that yes, we are trying to balance. That is because of Ban Ki Moon’s desire to bring up the balance to 50-50. So, when there is that kind of policy, we do it. But when we assign responsibility, I do not think there are work more for female, or more for male responsibility. There is no such thing.”

“Try to be gender neutral unless there are things that require...for example, I just went to Nigeria on a mission...like try to avoid sending a young female staff to Nigeria because it could be riskier for her but in any other case in terms of organization events, speaking publicly, presenting, we are gender blind. It is the same.”

“Well, from my side, at least I make an attempt in not making a difference regarding gender. Of course, with the roles and responsibilities, there is some sort of a pre-selection because senior staff are still mainly male while the support staff is mainly female. So, I think there’s some sort of pre-distribution in these roles. If you have say, among professional staff, men and women, and I do not make a distinction according to gender. It is more, according to the capabilities of people.”

“A: I think that is a good part. In these organizations or at least in here it does not apply because I think in this consideration they do not even have this gender difference. They say that we are all one. 5 women, 5 guys, a hundred and ten...”

E: Here? No, not at all. As long as you are willing to do the work, they do not care if you are a girl as long as you do it right.”

The 8th focus group, and 9th and 10th interview questions investigated participants’ PO and FO. Regarding time orientation, except for one supervisor, the others’ juncture is also tilted towards high FO: Two out of five participants showed FO; one showed past orientation; one a combination of present and future; and one demonstrated a combination of past, present and future. Moreover, all of them placed emphasis on the importance of a roadmap with clear objectives and realistic deadlines; this points to high FO characteristics as well. Likewise, while the staff defined how they achieved their objectives, they demonstrated high FO characteristics, such as describing and structuring clear goals, and developing a timeframe with realistic deadlines.

Due to the lack of proper financial incentives, and a difficulty to fire inefficient staff members, at the organization, the capacity of the organization is rather limited for the proper utilization of the carrot and stick approach. Promotion opportunities are also limited and financial incentives are not allowed to be used by the supervisors. What is more, when a staff member does not produce up to standards, it is most difficult to let go of them, and resultantly, low PO is common amongst the participants. Into this bargain, in lieu of taking control over how to achieve their own objectives, the staff expect their supervisors to help them and explain how to achieve those aims. Likewise, supervisors have difficulty encouraging PO. With these limited conditionals, they used the methods left to them: raising staff's energy, curiosity and strengths; sending them on travel missions; empowering them; providing training opportunities; and giving positive feedback. On the other hand, while supervisors described their achievement approach, only one out of five demonstrated characteristics of low PO by setting team spirit and encouraging and engaging team members, while the others demonstrated high PO through individual control over their objectives.

Overall, summary of national cultural characteristics is shown in Table 7.2

Dimensions	UA	HO	Power Distance	IC	IGC	GE	PO	Assertiveness	FO
Degree	Low and high	Low and high	High	Low and high	Low and high	High	Low	Low and high	High

Table 7.2: Summary of UNCTAD Participants' National Cultural Characteristics.

7.4 Power

During observations, some instruments of hard power were noticed. For example, P5 and above level executives have their own rooms and printers, in addition, directors and higher level administrators have bigger rooms with special furniture and assigned secretaries. However, as one supervisor stated, the UNCTAD has a fairly flat hierarchy and is a research oriented organization. Hence, according to the research participants, the need of power mostly develops in line with elements of soft power, such as, being able to utilize resources, setting and shaping an agenda, defining rules, being

able to use information, developing a vision of final goals, subtle showing of respect, being older, and being able to reach goals.

Power distance is very high in the organization because staff members in professional and higher categories have different and better benefits than other types of personnel, such as, a superior salary system, educational grants, dependency benefits, special leave, and other similar remunerations. For such reasons, at the least, having a professional post has become an important prerogative in the UN system.

Furthermore, three out five staff members find the Machiavellian teleological approach justified for the purposes of gaining and maintaining power by a leader:

“B: I believe the phrase it relates to maybe pragmatism and there is no guideline or no ABC on how to do things. So it’s not like the right thing always what is weird to us and what is not and you have to be pragmatic according to the circumstances. Sometimes need to use certain skills, knowledge. Sometimes you have to use other strategy or criteria. It depends a lot on each person’s personality, values, etcetera...Well, yeah, that’s what I think of that phrase.”

“D: I think power in this context is authority and responsibility, right? So, if we’re talking about leaders, most often we’re thinking about their power and authority over their employees, or even their citizenry or something else. It can also be power over the scope of your portfolio...projects you’re managing. You may not always be managing people but you may have a project or something like that or your portfolio and that’s a level of authority and responsibility. But I think when you are talking about staying in power, or something like that, then what’s the most effective route to what you have some sense of authority or some area of authority to maintain that and there are different answers to that question. There is non-virtuous ways to go about it and then of course there are more sustainable and effective ways to do it. But to me power is this idea of, you found yourself by whatever means to exercise authority over people or things and how you maintain that authority is how you exercise that power.”

“A: I think a good leader needs to know what everything is doing, so even though you need to delegate and everything, a good leader needs to know, if you are giving a thing to somebody else, you need to know that specific homework or that specific thing and really know, otherwise you would not be able to say if it is correct or wrong. So, I think you need to put in other person’s place. So, I understand that good leader needs to be older than you so you can believe that they are the boss and can lead and people will obey you. You just need to put in the other’s place and understand how everything is supposed to work and then just make it function”

Their main arguments, in lieu of virtue, are that different skills and tactics are all legitimate tools to be used in leadership, and a leader must think pragmatically to make

power more functional. On the other hand, one participant did make an objection to the awareness levels of virtue:

“So Machiavelli and economics is really straightforward and I think it is difficult to understand now what 19th Century virtue mean and how we transfer that to today. Virtues is the definition of changes and it's different in every culture. So it's very difficult to build a general statement on that because transforming that today, what does virtuous means? Could mean that a leader or prince needs to, I do not know, sexually harass another woman to stay in power? Is that necessary or is it just smaller things. So, I think that is difficult to answer in that case cuz of course it depends on the level of virtuousness and what we think it applies”.

and another came out against the Machiavellian approach in support of Kantian deontological ethics:

“E: I do not think so that Machiavelli... What my understanding is...I agree with you that when he wrote the book, The Prince, the historical context was very different, and for what I know, he, when he talks about being virtuous, I do not think that is has moral connotation into it, that you have to be morally good. I think what he means is that you can be virtuous in the public sphere and not in your private life that is if you are a good person or if you have good ethics. I think you have to be ethically virtuous within the public sphere as a leader...”

7.5 Leadership

The 11th interview question¹¹⁶ examined effective leadership definition. Supervisors defined effective leadership, as, desirable to be followed, setting an example, honesty, confidence, being respected, thoughtfulness, fairness, discretion, succinctness, and being results-based and team-oriented. Likewise, first focus group discussion was also focused on the same subject. According to staff, the characteristics of an effective leader are found in: being reliable; a role model; having organizational abilities; delegating and using human capital; establishing a balance between greater and collective good; being aware of followers' needs; being clear, approachable and charming; understanding resource issues; and understanding the constraints, and also the weakness and strengths, of staff. Furthermore, it was observed that there was a mechanics and a level of professional relations amongst supervisors and staff, and even amongst colleagues. When staff prepared a draft paper, it was sent through the intranet system and their supervisors and related personnel could see and add their comments.

¹¹⁶ 11th interview question: What is your personal definition of effective leadership?

After receiving the final version, it would be sent by email to the supervisor. When a task was accomplished, they just moved on to the next step. Apart from that, there was no noticeable face to face feedback between the supervisors and the workforce.

While the participants described effective leadership, they specified the main traits and behaviours of charismatic/value-based and team-oriented leadership styles, such as, being inspirational and a role model, having integrity, and being performance and team-oriented. On the other hand, during observations, it was realized that there was an obvious communication problem between supervisors and staff, which connoted a mechanical relationship. In lieu of performance concerns, the supervisors had a professionalism concern. They define tasks via electronic mail and expect everything to be prepared by their staff without providing any face to face feedback to them. The attitude of the supervisors was very far off from the idealized effective leadership styles explicated by the participants.

7.6 Motivation

The 13th interview question investigated the difficulties of staff motivation from different nationalities. Four out of five supervisors did not see an effect by nationality on staff motivation, as it affects IOs. They emphasized professionalism over national background. On the other hand, one participant stated the impact of national background on the perception of promotion and how this view may lead to a demoralization effect amongst some nationalities. Likewise, the 9th focus group question examined the same subject. The staff did not foresee any difficulties regarding motivation when it came to dealing with different national backgrounds. They saw motivational concept as an individual entity which was related to personality of each person.

The 14th interview question¹¹⁷ elaborated specific examples of increasing or decreasing motivation of staff. According to previous experiences of the supervisors, the demotivating factors were, a lack of communication, limited vacant posts, restriction of flexible work hours, going unrecognized, assigning more work than capacity, having boring requests, and giving negative feedback. On the contrary, motivating factors were, encouraging people to talk, building links with universities and other research centres,

¹¹⁷14th interview question: Could you provide some specific examples of what you did which resulted in significant levels of increased or decreased motivation of your staff?

prioritizing staff promotions, providing opportunities for field work and trips abroad, listening to all views, allowing for more responsibility and autonomy, and positive feedback.

What is more, the 15th interview question¹¹⁸ described the most effective motivational tools for staff motivation. The supervisors inferred the most effective motivational tools for the staff of IOs as mostly non-monetary. Only one out of five participants recommended augmenting the budget of the organization. Apart from this, all others were non-monetary, such as: lessening bureaucracy; setting more challenges and higher responsibilities; letting opportunities out in order to see the result of public service works; increasing promotion options; recognizing achievements; matching staff abilities with the proper jobs; performing team building exercises, such as, playing paintball, climbing mountains, holding picnics, etcetera; providing training and work travel opportunities; giving positive feedback and a feeling of involvement; and, defining a clear vision.

In addition, focus group's final question examined, "How staff can be motivated in the context of IOs. Five staff members recommended non-monetary motivational tools, such as focusing on individual motivation, establishing communication between supervisor and staff, giving clearly structured and defined objectives to the workforce, recognizing them and their works, establishing a feeling of being included among the team, and increasing their stability through long term contracts.

The UNCTAD choses their staff from good academic and work backgrounds. As an individual, all are assets, but do not seem part of a team. Most of them are seen as solo fliers and give off the feeling of being motivated, by only individual incentives, not part of a group motivation.

As concerns McClelland's needs of motivation, the supervisors and two out of five staff members demonstrated high affiliation need in reacting to unexpected events. They did not like uncertainty in the work environment and described these kinds of events as being upsetting, disappointing and frustrating. They initially panic but then try

¹¹⁸ 15th interview question: What do you think are the most effective motivational tools for staff in the context of international organizations?

to find a solution with other supervisors and staff by being flexible. Oppositely, the other three staff members had low affiliation need: they saw these kinds of events as normal and react as a team with a coherent action plan.

While encouraging good human nature, the supervisors still showed high affiliation need by desiring to increase their own popularity amongst their staff, through such acts as, interacting openly, showing concern, generosity, flexibility, respect and tolerance, autonomy, and giving positive feedback, in order to make them feel appreciated and involved. As well, one of the supervisors emphasized the importance of establishing a good hiring selection process.

Identifying concerns with creating team spirit, two out of five supervisors showed high affiliation needs, as they went through underlying collective actions, such as partaking in social events, going on missions together, and sharing a vision. On the other hand, three out of five demonstrated low affiliation need by encouraging individual identity, and acts such as, highlighting individual contributions, setting a good example, caring for their staff, and understanding limitations and aptitudes. In addition, staff had the desire to feel part of the team and thus had high affiliation needs regarding team spirit, but due to a closed-door policy, no interaction between them took place and they found it difficult to fulfil the requirements of this need e.g. never being introduced to team members; communication problems; Lack of equity, leadership and direction; Late salary payments; not being understood by supervisors; and, creating two kinds of staff, as professional and others.

With regard to ensuring a sense of belonging, all the supervisors showed characteristics of high affiliation need by acts, such as, interacting, supporting, having collective output and achievements, building common interests, empowering, keeping informed, and having a celebration after a major accomplishment. Alternatively, expectations of staff were in need of being valued, respected, and included in group objectives; other such examples: A less stringent bureaucracy; having permanent contracts; and, taking advantage of organizational benefits.

Nevertheless, the supervisors had low affiliation need as regards socializing with their staff out of work. Their main concerns were, avoiding favouritism, preferring work related bonds, keeping a healthy distance, devoting their spare time to their families, and

not facing multicultural sensitivities. On the other hand, while the staff described their relationships with their supervisors, they appreciated participating in meetings, accessing information, communicating freely, feeling part of the team yet having autonomy, and having clear cut objectives. Contrariwise, assigning the same task to different staff and displaying artificial kindness were enumerated as negative types of supervisor behaviour. They demonstrated one of the high affiliation need characteristics by willingly taking part in social activities with their supervisors after work.

While the supervisors described their achievement approaches, only one put an emphasis on team engagement:

“Well, first of all, I think one has to be clear about the objectives and what are the objectives. One needs to set the priorities. And then of course one has to determine how to attain the objectives. I mean if you think only of a specific result, how you can work to achieve those objectives yourself. How you involve your team. How you yourself are not involved at all, except for supervising the process, not in the substantive term. Things that you respect, that you set deadlines. Intermediate deadlines. You respect the deadlines. That you try to do all of these things that we discussed in earlier questions. That you set team spirit, encouragement, an engagement of the team in order to be able to achieve these objectives.”

The others focused on establishing roadmaps with realistic objectives and deadlines. Contrary to the supervisors, the achievement need was pretty low among the other participants. In lieu of showing a desire to take responsibility for finding solutions to achieve their objectives and master complex tasks, they showed a leader-centric approach and accordingly expected the leader to help them with all things.

7.7 Conclusion

The physical description of the UNCTAD is an interesting combination of high security concerns, dull bureaucracy, artworks, and plant life. There is a remarkable twist in the organizational climate. On the contrary, social dwellings are attractive, pleasant and cheerful. There is an implicit closed-door policy and non-verbal communication is quite common. English is utilized as the main language and French is preferred for salutation. In addition, trade and development terms and acronyms were heard often in daily conversations. Smart casual dressing is common among staff. As a ritual, four coffee breaks and one lunch hour are taken by staff and they mainly discuss work issues

at the second break. The main organizational climate of the organization is similar to that of a library.

The UNCTAD encourages publications and staff's publications can be seen on every floor. Herein, an espoused value emerges as "in order to be recognized by the organization, a research paper must be published". In addition, gender equality is shared by all the participants and hence it is seen as the other espoused value. On the other hand, "Unexpected events always occur in the organization"; "National background does not make any impact on motivation of staff in the context of IOs"; "In order to achieve our objectives, we need a pretty good leader"; and "There are two types of staff in the organization: professionals and others" are basic underlying assumptions in the organization.

Reflections of Lukes (2005)'s first and second power dimensions are observed in the power definition of participants. They mainly perceive power as being part of decisions making process and shaping agenda. In addition, power distance is quite high and Machiavellian ethics is more common among participants.

There is an important contrast between staff's effective leadership expectations and supervisors' behaviours. While charismatic/value based and team oriented leadership styles are preferred by the staff, supervisors mostly show characteristics of autocratic leadership such as cutting verbal communication with their staff through developing more mechanic superior and subordinate relationship and discouraging staff's participation to the decision-making process.

There is an obvious motivation problem among staff. Except for professionals, most of the other staff feel excluded. Their main motivational expectations are in the direction of non-monetary and intrinsic, however, they are not dealt with by the organization. There are big invisible communication walls between supervisors and staff which will not be removed in the near future.

CHAPTER 8

THE INTERNATIONAL TRADE CENTRE (ITC)

8.1 Introduction

In order to support the WTO's rules of trade, and the UNCTAD's research and policy strategies, the ITC as an international organization was established in 1964. Its main goals are to support economies of developing countries in their integration into the global economy, advance capacity of trade and investment support of institutions for the sake of Small-Medium Enterprises (SMEs), and enhance their competitiveness. Regarding management issues, the head of the ITC reports to the Secretary General of UNCTAD and the Director General of the WTO and the Joint Advisory Group which is embodied by their organizations' supervision of ITC actions.

Based on *quota sampling technique* and *voluntarism principle*, five supervisors as interviewees, and five staff members as part of focus group discussions, participated in the research. All the interviews were conducted and recorded with a voice recorder by the researcher. Whilst the shortest lasted 28.22 minutes, the longest took 49.45 minutes, and the average was 37.77 minutes. During focus group discussions, which lasted 48.47 minutes, the researcher also acted as the moderator while a professional research assistant took notes. Whilst analysing the data, all the participants were kept anonymous. In addition, the researcher carried on with non-participant, structured, and overt observations, for a three-day period, at the facilities of the ITC. The findings of the ITC will be discussed and interpreted according to the explanations that were provided in Chapter 6.1.

8.2 Organizational Culture

8.2.1 Artifacts

The ITC building is very close to the city centre (7-8 minutes walking from the main city train station). It has seven floors above and three more below ground. The UN guards provide security and do registration of the visitors. In addition, in the waiting lounge, there are a number of UN magazines to be viewed. Due to images such as this, when someone enters the building, although the ITC is only half budgeted and

programmed by the UN¹¹⁹, they get the impression of being inside a United Nations organization. For socialization, the cafeteria and restaurant are in the same place. There are 80 seats inside of the cafeteria and a terrace with thirty extra places outside. Several magazines and newspapers in English, French and Spanish, are provided in the cafeteria by the library. Except for the ground level, there are fifty-two offices, which are furnished simple and modern on every other floor.

There are enclosed office layouts at the organization. The P5 and above workforce, and according to availability of space, some P4 level staff, have their own offices. Other staff work at two or three to a group in one room, with the exception of interns who work four or five persons per office. There is an obvious open-door policy at the organization which reflects in the interaction of the staff as well. If someone wants to visit or discuss something, they either go to the team-room or just call to ask about availability to meet. There is furthermore an interactive and sincere work environment.

Verbal and nonverbal communication hold important places in communication systems. The intranet system is utilized in a highly effective manner for organizational work. Official documents and reports can be found in this system and electronic mails are utilized in any kinds of work. Furthermore, group interaction and dynamics hold important places in the organizational culture of the ITC. While discussing topics, in some groups, one or two people try to dominate discussions and attempt to give off the feeling that their individual opinions are those of the group's. On the contrary, in some group discussions, although the participants are composed of both supervisors and staff, they discuss topics freely and anyone can try to take leadership of the group. In such completely knowledge and result based environments, the main approach is to create awareness, identify the current knowledge level of the workforce, establish a consensus, and develop an action plan.

Even though UN organizations have six official languages, the ITC has three, which are all the same as the WTO's (English, French and Spanish). However, English is the main spoken language and used in relation to trade terminology. While staff are conversing with each other, they utilize trade jargon, such as, revenue, trademark, export, or, abbreviations, such as, SME (Small Medium Enterprise), PPD (Public Private

¹¹⁹ The other half of the budget and program is provided by the WTO.

Dialogue), TSI (Trade Support Institutions), and PRP (Prerequisite programs). Hence, it is necessary to have a basic trade terminology knowledge to understand these discussions.

All the male executive staff (P5 and above) mostly wear formal business attire and have their daily shaves. Other male staff wear more smart casual clothing, such as long or short-sleeved shirts, t-shirts, fabric pants or jeans. Nevertheless, if they are going outside for a meeting, or have meetings with externals or high executives in the organization, every staff member wears suits and ties. On the other hand, female executives and staff prefer to wear mostly dark coloured blouses, dresses, long-sleeved shirts, slacks, long skirts, or short skirts with dark pantyhose. Interestingly, Friday is an informal-dress day. Male or female, most of the executive and staff come to work with casual clothes. The informal dress day implementation provides a more relaxed work environment.

Customarily, most staff take their first coffee break around 10:30 to 11:00. While some take their coffee to be consumed in their offices, most prefer to do so at the cafeteria itself. The second coffee break is around 15:30 - 16:30. An average break takes around 20 minutes. The official lunch period is between 13:00 - 14:00, but lunch services commence at 11:45 and the staff usually come to the restaurant between 12:00 and 14:00. At lunch, while support staff, secretaries and interns, mostly prefer to eat together, other professional staff share the same table. It can be inferred that as a ritual, there are two coffees and one lunch breaks in a day. Herein, there is not a sharp distinction between work and socialization areas. As a habit, most staff bring files and work documents to the cafeteria in order to discuss their work and execute meetings during their morning coffee break. At lunch too, some colleagues are heard discussing work, but not as much as it occurs during the first coffee break of the day.

There are smaller posters, with the ITC logo and the slogan, "Our Way Forward", that can be seen on every floor. This slogan is in reference to the mission and goals of the organization and reminds the staff of their vital nature.

8.2.2 Espoused Beliefs and Values

In order to improve trade and investment performance and international competitiveness, the ITC gives professional support to SMEs. However, there is a reflective relation between them and their values. The ITC as an intergovernmental organization constructs and transfers its principles to the private sector, but it is also affected by some of the values of the private sector, such as being flexible, collaborative, knowledge, trust, and result based organization. It does not give the feeling of a classical intergovernmental organization. Organizational culture encourages staff's participation and showing individual respect. In addition, it gives the impression that without having enough knowledge about the duties' contents, it is rather difficult for the staff to manage surviving in the organization.

Moreover, while the ITC encourages equal trade opportunities for economies of developing countries, it also supports egalitarianism among genders in its own organization. The reflections of these understandings may easily be found in the beliefs and values of the participants:

"... I really do not have any concern for gender in terms of what someone can do or cannot do..."

"I would say we do not have any differences of gender."

"There is no reason why certain genders should have certain things; I think there is no such thing..."

"...Gender for me, is not what matters. I think all the jobs, from the President of a country, a Prime Minister, to the lowest level of responsibility, can do irrespective of your sex. Whether you're a man or a woman, it does not make any difference. It is the experience that matters. You know, you have experience, you have the job..."

"...For some field missions in a country where a woman would not feel comfortable to go, we take it into consideration. Even for consultants that we hire, if we think that in one sector it would be very tough for her to conduct a survey or to go get in touch with companies, we avoid to hire a woman for that. That is in the spirit of protecting a person but not for the discrimination. But we also try to have a gender balance for our work so we do not discriminate. For some tough tasks, for example, if do have a study for cotton sector, we do not send a woman to go to the field in Africa to conduct the survey, because it is tough."

"E: ...I never see it from the angle of gender, you can do whatever you want..."

C: It is not for me just about woman equality, it is about in equality general, women to women, women empowerment. Sometimes you have a woman supervisor and you are a woman. Sometimes you feel lack of concern, this is inferior sort of behaviour, not here, I saw in the past. So, it is all about how equal we are, not just about the gender. I think how we should actually be empowering each-other. Not have discountenanced behaviour to each other not just because you are in a more senior managerial position.

A: I do not think we have a gender issue in our organizations. We have female and male secretaries, so it is not a problem. Everyone does whatever they want.”

Only one participant infers that “...For some field missions in a country where a woman would not feel comfortable to go, we take it into consideration.” Apart from this, there is a consensus on gender egalitarianism. Contained within these understandings is an espoused value: “*There is no gender inequality in the organization*”.

8.2.3 Basic Underlying Assumptions

The participants evaluate their main reactions toward unexpected events and assume that they may occur at any time. Hence, UA is categorically low at the organization, which also leads to a basic underlying assumption that “unexpected events occur all the time”.

“...I was more apprehensive before I started here but as I work with these countries that have low capacity, I have become quite aware, well, used to them. I’ve become quite used them. They do not scare me actually at all. I expect them to happen and then once they do, I deal with them.”

“...It is like, whether it’s a multinational or a national team, unexpected events do take place in the sense that certain events take place which can completely jeopardize whatever you are trying to do...”

“...Well, things can happen. For example, if your political instability, the whole plan is jeopardized and activities are stopped. The commitments with the funding are stopped. There are financial implications. Contractual issues. Yet, we are very used to these kinds of problems...”

“...I think we are here at the UN and international organizations because we believe in the value of diversity. We do believe in what it can make as a positive difference. So, if something unexpected happens...war...crisis...conflict, in the world, it should not affect us, but on the contrary, it should lead to more dialogue, more discussion, on the causes, or in trying to not be affected by the international environment. And then adapt, be open to comments, to the critiques, and be ready to encourage people. So never judge to quickly...”

“As most of our work is in the field, most of the time, some situations can happen.”

“A: Very good, we have that all the time.

B: It is normal.”

Meetings hold an important place in the information flow and working structure of the organization. The participants believe that they are very useful to improving staff performance and creating team spirit along with a sense of belonging. Hence, one of their basic underlying assumptions is that “meetings are necessary at work”.

“...You can organize team meetings to discuss to see what others are doing to have transparency within the team...”

“...For example I had an opportunity to work with another manager, the ambiance of my team was totally different. We were more talkative I do not know we were sharing more information. He tried to make exchange experience more. We made team meeting in every week, the dynamic was different. But now we have a new chief, he is different, I am not saying he is bad, but it is just the way to see and way of managing the team are different. He is not doing team meetings. For example, people are doing their things by their sides, it is totally changed...”

“...I think we have smaller group and team meetings from different sections that makes more sense...”

“...Having these meetings now and again. Making sure that you do not exclude anyone. I mean that is what we do. Coffee or some small event.”

The final basic underlying assumption is about motivation. The participants refer to culture-neutral organization dynamics. According to them, nationality is not an issue because they get used to working in a multicultural environment and presume that, “Motivation of staff is not related to their national background and they are culture-neutral in the organization”.

“Motivations...I do not know if I have seen different motivation of different nationalities as much as difference in personalities. To me it is more like a personality thing. Yeah, I do not think that I can give you like certain nationalities are motivated to do certain things sort of thing or one has or has not a certain motivation as to me it has been more like a personality thing...”

“As I said earlier, see here we are cultural-neutral, after so many years of working, people have adapted themselves to each other's way of functioning

quite well, therefore I would say, cultural differences on motivation, I have not seen coming in the way in 10 years of directly functioning with multicultural teams...”

“From my experience, which is my nationalities in a family, I have learned that each...if you want to attribute certain behaviours to nationalities, well, I think it is already stereotyping and it does not apply because you all types of behaviours in nationalities but people themselves have different ways to react to motivation, to performance...so, you have to trust people, and each person has their own way in which they can be better motivated and achieve their goals, so when people talk about multiculturalism and all these things and put this as a problem, I really do not define the problem or the challenge, because for me is just a big box of respect, well I mean it is the same thing between people of the same culture. Maybe it is because of my background but I do not attribute special behaviours to certain cultures...this is not, say that someone is more of a something than others or more capable...”

“It is not depending on the cultural thing because I do not see any culture that promotes people to be lazy in a culture that promotes people to be effective, I do not think so. So, the motivation it depends on the behaviour of the leader.”

“A: That is human, I think everybody wants to hear good things. That is a general aspect, not because that you are from some country.

B. I think in international environment we work and we do not need this kind of motivation. It is understood we are in international environment and it is the way we work.

D: At the beginning, when I started to work for UN, I realized there was one majority of one nationality; they are like this, because he is like this because he is coming from that nationality and etcetera. But from motivational part, I think sometimes maybe the way you work or expressing yourself comes out from your nationality.

E: I Agree. Not on motivational level, but our national characteristics comes out in how we express things. In terms of motivation, we are motivated to become happy. After one and two years, you know, understand and adapt yourself to international environment.

C: More in way you express, you do thing or you try to obtain grizzle. I think that is difference between different nationalities.”

The summary of all three cultural layers is shown at Table 8.1.

Artefacts	Influence of the UN, knowledge and result based organization, group interaction and dynamics, open door policy, no unique dress code, informal dress day (Fridays), smaller posters (symbol), verbal and non-verbal communication, English (speaking language), French (saluting language), and trade terminology, two coffees and one lunch breaks, discussion of work issues at the first coffee break (around 10.30) (rituals), and having reflexive relations with SMEs.
Espoused Values	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - There is no gender inequality in the organization, - Being flexible, collaborative, participative, knowledge, trust, and result based.
Basic Underlying Assumptions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Unexpected events always occur all the times, - Motivation of staff is not related to their national background and staff are culture-neutral in the organization, - Meetings are necessary at the work.

Table 8.1: Summary of the ITC Organizational Culture

8.3 National Culture

The first interview question investigated supervisors' main concerns while working with a multicultural workforce. Except for one participant, the others have some concerns and preoccupations while working with different nationalities. The main concerns are about national insensitivities and PO. Herein, indeed, PO is more related to staff than supervisors, as the aim of the latter does not increase efficiency or performance. The main concern is to develop staff performance as regards working independently, hence the supervisor will do less supervising to have more time for himself. Moreover, the preoccupation is for "creating a good working environment", and being able to motivate staff more effectively. These preoccupations are more related to providing better work conditions.

The third interview¹²⁰ and fourth focus group questions¹²¹ examined UA dimension. While dealing with unexpected events, in lieu of relying on a backup plan, the participants preferred to lean on team interaction and instantly developed tailored solutions. These attitudes lead to conclude that UA is rather low amongst them.

The fourth and seventh interview questions explored HO. It is high amongst the supervisors, especially while encouraging good human nature. They assessed integrity through: sharing coffee and lunch breaks, understanding good things, being good examples, caring and listening, being open to dialogue, respect, and trusting each other. Also, they showed midlevel HO to the idea of seeing their staff outside of work. Even though they continued to see each other at social activities or during special events, there was a sense of professionalism between them. The preference of the supervisors connotes midlevel assertiveness by developing a basic level of friendship out of work. Furthermore, third focus group question investigated HO as well. Herein, only one staff met her supervisor outside of work in order to partake in a social activity, while all the others had not spent any time with their supervisors after work. Thereby, all the participants preferred not to meet outside of work and desired to have a more professional relationship. This preference is one of the main characteristics of low HO. In addition, except for one staff who met regularly with her supervisor, all the other ones showed high assertiveness attributes through determining boundaries with their superiors. It should be noted that even the one participant who did meet regularly with her supervisor, said that she preferred not to do so.

The fifth interview and focus group questions focused on IC through investigating how team spirit can be established in IOs. The supervisors encouraged high IC through showing sensitivity and respect, sharing information, and performing team building activities, such as regular meetings and social events:

“...Having these meetings now and again. Making sure that you do not exclude anyone. I mean that’s what we do. Coffee or some small event.”

“Even to the previous answer to your previous question I said that sharing a common goal and be convinced about the way to achieve that is how we manage to create team spirit. Then of course there are the softer elements: one

¹²⁰ 3rd interview question: What do participants think of unexpected events that happen while working with multinational teams?

¹²¹ 4th focus group question: What do you think about unexpected events that occur in your team?

has to be helpful and not critical all the time. You know the good principal is, whenever you have to criticize, criticize in private and whenever you have to give credit to, do that in public. So, you have to maintain that team spirit through proper guidance to be able to explain, to be able to be sensitive to their personal needs...”

“You have to give confidence to higher level staff. For technical work, a person who has more developed technical skills for that particular job. Well, part of creating team spirit is to create spirit of the values. To share what we’re doing. Also, in the environment that we work, it is very difficult. Well, we are in a very heavy environment in terms of bureaucracy, in terms of things to get approved, objectives, things materializing. So, it is very difficult that we go to do things very far from our values as we have a lot checks. Even within a team. So, part of information sharing is the way we keep the spirit up...”

“The people have different cultures, different backgrounds, and we have to be really careful not to hurt their sensitivities. In some countries, having women as a leader, or as a chief, may be something that is not necessarily easy. Or having a younger boss, you know, in some cultures, the old people, get the last word. Very difficult to go against a grandfather, or an old woman, even if you disagree or she’s completely wrong, you say, “of course, you’re right!”, because she’s a grandmother. So, these things, you have to take it into account. So, it’s not like imposing things when you lead a multicultural, multinational team, you have to beware, and be aware, of those things. So, never impose. Dialogue...”

“At the beginning you need to explain them very well that if we achieve results, this is for all the team. If we fail, we fail together also. That is the most important thing. I give you an example. When we achieve good impact within a project I should not show it to our supervisor that this was because of me only. You need to communicate in a way that your team members also are part of the success. So this is the best way to show them that we are one team and if we succeed, the return for investment will be for all of us but if we fail, we will all be blamed by our director or our chief of the section.”

Likewise, among the staff, there is a high IC characteristic in appreciating collective action as well:

“C: Why do we need to create team spirit? I feel that we have already team spirit. I am new in the team, there is already a sort of collaboration and cooperation, I think the match is good in the team. There is already something there. What should be we created? I think type of personality maybe type of manager created this atmosphere.

B: Of course, type of personality differences a lot. But more important is when you have a good leader or good manager that, the team was totally different. For example, I had an opportunity to work with another manager, the ambience of my team was totally different. We were more talkative I do not know we were sharing more information. He tried to make exchange experience more. We made team meeting in every week, the dynamic was different. But now we have a new chief, he is different, I am not saying he is bad, but it is just the way to see and way of

managing the team are different. He is not doing team meetings. For example, people are doing their things by their sides, it is totally changed.

E: Trust means a lot. For instance, with our mandator, he trusts us when we submit a document, although there is a minor mistake, he signs it without checking and questioning. Which makes me work harder and submit something correct. You do not want to put him in a difficult situation. But if a boss like asking always what is this and why did you do this? You will do anyway it gonna be checked anyway, just do it. But trust makes you work put your things together and stay focused on. Trust is important in team spirit.

D: Trust and Responsibility.

A: ...If one has a question can go to see either the boss or to the other colleagues and can make it sorted out. The spirit is there. We just go and do it together but also boss influences and ables that.”

The sixth interview and focus group questions investigated how to ensure a sense of belonging in IOs. Still, in order to increase IGC, supervisors performed similar acts which were mentioned above, such as, recognizing each individual achievement of the staff, involving them in meetings and knowledge sharing, and overlapping individual and organizational objectives. Contrariwise, while discussing issues dealing with a sense of belonging, except for one participant (professional post) who expressed her feelings on the issue, all the others (general service staff) provided ambiguous answers by using words, such as, *sometimes* and *not really sure*, or mentioned their past experiences. These pretexts gave off the impression that the latter four have a low IGC threshold.

The seventh focus group and eighth interview questions investigated GE. Except for one supervisor who had concerns while sending female staff to a field mission in a country where a woman would not feel comfortable:

“We take it into consideration. For example, for some field missions in a country where a woman would not feel comfortable to go, we take it into consideration. Even for consultants that we hire, if we think that in one sector it would be very tough for her to conduct a survey or to go get in touch with companies, we avoid to hire a woman for that. That is in the spirit of protecting a person but not for the discrimination. But we also try to have a gender balance for our work so we don’t discriminate. For some tough tasks, for example, if do have a study for cotton sector, we don’t send a woman to go to the field in Africa to conduct the survey, because it’s tough. So, in this type of consideration, yes.”

GE is strong among other supervisors as high participation of females is encouraged. Likewise, GE ranked very high with the staff as well. All were females and believed that they could do whatever they put their minds to.

“I really do not have any concern for gender in terms of what someone can do or cannot do.”

“I would say we do not have any differences of gender. They are doing exactly the same as the other gender. Including, going on travel, as we call it in our parlance, “Missions”, even to difficult places. We have never made a distinction that a particular gender can go to a particular place and not the other...”

“There is no reason why certain genders should have certain things, I think there is no such thing. People are chosen to have gender equality to do some work, certain tasks, it has nothing to do with their...”

“Whether you are a man or a woman, it does not make any difference. It is the experience that matters.”

The eight focus group and ninth and tenth interview questions examined PO and FO dimensions. The supervisors encouraged high PO through ensuring opportunities for developing necessary skills of the staff regarding given tasks, developing open dialogue channels which cover feedback, guidance and periodic reviews, and recognizing achievements. On the other hand, while working towards their own objectives, the supervisors placed emphasis on teamwork by defining clear objectives and creating an interactive work environment. Also, they showed high FO characteristics by preparing a plan with a timeframe. In addition, two out of five supervisors defined themselves as more concentrated on the future, one on both present and future, and the other two in a combination of past, present and future. Inversely, while the staff described their main achievement approach, each showed low FO by focusing on the present state of affairs with a low performance orientation, as they sought help from their colleagues and social environment, and used social interactions such as thinking positively, always smiling, and being flexible and adaptable. The summary of all dimensions for participants of the ITC is given in Table 8.2.

Dimensions	UA	HO	PD	IC	IGC	GE	PO	Assertiveness	FO
Degree	Low	Low, middle and high	High	High	Low and high	High	High	Middle and High	Low and high

Table 8.2: Summary of the ITC Participants’ National Cultural Characteristics.

8.4 Power

According to the supervisors, the characteristics of power were developed under two different types of power relations: hard and soft. First, hierarchy was seen as the representative of the hard power understanding. Second, having network and capacity to get things delivered, being knowledgeable, and having the capacity to reach goals, were evaluated as components of soft power in an organization. However, the staff mostly defined power concept from hard power perspectives, such as making decisions, having authority and controlling workers, being able to spend money, and the facility to sign documents. The staff's exclusive focus on hard power was reminiscent of high power distance. They equated power with a position in the hierarchy, and except for the supervisors who hold these positions and privileges, no one else was deemed able to get power in the organization. The staff had some valid reasons to define power from a hard concept, because, in order to have certain privileges, such as separate, and special furnished rooms, printers, and secretaries, it was necessary to be at least at a P5 level or higher in the organization. However, apart from these advantages, there was an exception regarding reservation of parking spaces. Any staff with over five years in the organization can obtain a parking space for 73 Swiss Francs per month. This exception can be seen as an encouragement by the organization to shorten the power distance between staff and high level executives.

Alternatively, the power need was high among the supervisors as they viewed power from two perspectives of hard and soft. In order to drive others, they did not feel that holding a position on its own measures up to the task. They also found the need to have more supplementary aids, such as a viable network, sufficient necessary knowledge of the issues, and the ability to be more result-oriented.

Regarding the Machiavelli phrase, the staff objected to ignoring virtues in order to gain and maintain power and endorsed the Kantian deontological ethics. According to them, many considerations must be included in the power acquisition process:

"A: I have the feeling this is a little bit like many politicians act at present and people who have power acts, I would say, lots of them act according to this phrase, but for my personal feeling I think this is wrong and it is not a good idea, but I see it in reality that is very often applied.

B: I am totally agree with her. Given the situations of many countries, I have the feeling that leaders they do not take into considerations all the factors in the countries and they just try to get that knowledge, but if they do not take into consideration circumstances, it will never work, so I totally agree with her.”

8.5 Leadership

The supervisors defined effective leadership, as, being accessible, visionary, inspirational, able to manage at a macro-level, enhance skill sets of the staff, result-oriented, having technical capabilities, show love, care, honesty, fairness, justice, ensuring team spirit, and not abusing power. While defining effective leadership, four types were highlighted by them: charismatic/value based; team oriented; human oriented; and, participative. Instead, both transformational and charismatic leadership types were perceived equivalent to effective leadership by the staff. They enumerated being able to amalgamate skills and abilities, such as being smart and efficient, making people listen and work together, being an example and able to deliver a vision and objectives, transforming the organization, communicating efficiently, obtaining desired resources, and having certain personal qualities and charisma, as the main characteristics of an effective leader.

In addition, the staff inferred that they already had team spirit at their division, thanks to the cooperative-collaborative work environment, but they and other participants posited that the main actor who provided this environment was the “leader”:

“C: Why do we need to create team spirit? I feel that we have already team spirit. I am new in the team, there is already a sort of collaboration and cooperation, I think the match is good in the team. There is already something there. What should be we created? I think type of personality maybe type of manager created this atmosphere.

B: Of course, type of personality differences a lot. But more important is when you have a good leader or good manager that, the team was totally different...

A: ... The spirit is there. We just go and do it together. But also, boss influences and ables that.”

Herein, we can conclude that the staff expect from their supervisors to be leaders who are not just managing given projects but are also visionary and inspirational and can contribute to team collectivism.

Furthermore, during observations, two types of desired leadership styles were observed, as, charismatic/value based and participative. When staff prepared the first draft of any work, they sent it to their supervisors with an email. Afterwards, the superior received a printed copy of that document on which he could make additions, augmentations, and amendments, usually with colour pens. If it became necessary to orally communicate with someone, they were usually contacted by telephone. Thereby any changes could be implemented in this manner. When staff disagreed, or required further clarifications, they usually met interactively. Supervisors could listen to every idea and attempted to assist staff by various means. Instead of giving an order and then withdrawing into one's own ivory tower, the supervisors tried to convince their staff by sharing information and holding interactive discussions. They relied on their knowledge but show respect for staff opinions as well.

8.6 Motivation

The 13th interview question investigated cultural differences on staff motivation. The supervisors did not believe that national background makes an impact on staff's motivation in the context of IOs. In lieu of nationality, they placed emphasis on the differences of personality and leader's behaviour. Likewise, the 9th focus group question examined staff's opinions about the same subject. The staff believed that motivation was related to individual perception, because they had adapted to working conditionals of the international environment, and nationality did not put any strains on this concept.

The 14th interview question focused on specific examples of increasing or decreasing motivation of staff. According to supervisors' previous work experiences, the demotivating factors are, unexplained tasks, taking all the credits oneself, limited promotion opportunities, impeding opinions, and giving boring tasks. On the contrary, motivating factors are, giving deadlines, monitoring, doing work allocation according to specific talents and attitudes, showing sensitivity to staff's individual problems, providing possibility of expression, recognizing achievements, ensuring perspective of career evolution, sharing information, protecting staff's rights, and taking responsibility for failures.

The 15th interview question explored the most effective motivational tools for staff motivation in the context of IOs. Encouraging the idea of working for a common

good, giving training, allocating responsibility, minimum interference in staff's task implementation, opening new projects, respecting individuals' plans, creating an environment that supports an equal voice, strengthening recognition of the organization, delegation, showing care and trust, good leadership, and more promotion opportunities, were enumerated by the supervisors.

The focus group's final question investigated the main research question of the inquiry: "How staff can be motivated?" Staff posited that job security (permanent contract), a work and life balance, being noticed by their supervisors (through acknowledgement with good words), and having a nice boss, would motivate them more. In lieu of monetary motivational tools, the participants believed that non-monetary tools were more useful in terms of their motivation.

"C: I think secured jobs are also motivating staff. We can have a long list of wish, but we are here in the UN where rules have been decided decades ago and we will not be able to change it, but as long as you have job security, you are already motivated.

A, E: Job security

B: And I think it is also important to have a work and life balance, because we have children, we are mothers, and we are working it is not easy to care of everything we have to keep the balance being mothers and manage at work. It is very important to take care of the kids. In fact, my situation was because I decided to work as part time and that is why I was not having a fixed contract. Balance and job security are the most important.

D: I agree with the two statements, but I would like add also we are all human beings, being noticed by our leaders or chiefs when we are doing good job is also important. Just saying a good word. It does not mean that we want additional money or something like this, as long as we have secure contract it is nice to be appreciated for the things that you are doing well and give you energy to go for extra miles.

C: You work harder but not because you are motivated, you work harder because you have something to prove or to ensure the stability. Almost desperate.

B: I do not know. Before I used to work in another IO (UNHCR), 80 % of the staff were with the permanent contracts. In fact, the staff with the short term contract which I was one of them, work harder than was with the permanent contract. But of course, situation is different here, because our organization is small and we do different things, many things, here we are multitasking. Here, it is difficult to get permanent contract. But in the other organization, people they try fight hard to obtain more stable contract and others they just get automatic

promoted the system is like this, and they just have to move to different stations.

E: Acknowledgement, if you work really hard, it would be nice.

C: Just a nice boss

A: Yes, a boss makes the whole difference.

B: I think we all have a bad experience and that is why we know the difference when you have a good manager.”

In addition, during observations, it was realized that there were flexible working hours, as staff could set their own work times: any consecutive eight hours between 07:00 and 19:00. In addition, if they wanted, they could work by utilizing the teleworking system on a remote basis, or if they preferred, they could work on a part time basis: 50 or 80 percent. In addition, every Friday was an informal dress day, which gave the feeling of having a comfortable and relaxed environment. Furthermore, there was an organizational recognition for the staffs’ individual right of having weekend vacations. It is for certain that these policies contribute positively to the motivation of the workforce.

Regarding McClelland motivational needs, as four out of five supervisors dealing with unexpected events, they showed high affiliation need through relying on social interactions, team dynamics and discussions, and collaboration with other colleagues. Conversely, the other participants demonstrated low affiliation need through developing an individual approach according to the nature of the unexpected event. As concerns encouragement of good human nature, the supervisors showed high affiliation need through valuing shared activities, such as coffee and lunch breaks, understanding situations accordingly, and developing social interactions. High affiliation need was also seen in supervisors’ goal of blossoming team spirit and a sense of belonging. They favoured collective action and demonstrated the desire to increase their popularity among staff, by showing respect for individual identities and sensitivities of team members in their efforts to create team spirit. In addition, while establishing a sense of belonging amongst their staff, their main approaches were, recognizing individual achievements, and overlapping individual and organizational objectives. The supervisors did not hold any strict boundaries as regards not seeing their staff outside of the work environment, but when partaking in lunch, dinner, drinks, or at special events such as

birthdays, Christmas, travel, etcetera, there was a level of professionalism which could be defined as neither low nor high affiliated need.

Furthermore, the staff defined a good relationship with supervisors, as being able to feel naturally as a part of the environment, being able to express themselves, not facing authoritative behaviours, having opportunity to fulfil their wishes, openness, having no boundaries, and being accessible. Regarding participation in outside-of-work social activities, they preferred to have professional relationships and not see their supervisors after work. This preference was an indication of low affiliation need among the participants. In addition, related to reacting to unexpected events, they again showed low affiliation need through accepting them as part of their daily work and not struggling to reduce uncertainty in the organization. On the other hand, they demonstrated a desire to belong to the team and have an enjoyment for teamwork. This tendency indicated high affiliation needs of participants regarding teamwork. Additionally, the participants had high affiliation need as regards the sense of belonging. Nonetheless, even though they did not explicitly infer about their organization, it could be foreseen that there were some obstacles ahead of this feeling, such as, bad leadership, favouritism, and not having a permanent contract.

Concerning the achievement need, supervisors placed team achievement before their own recognition. While dealing with their objectives, they used team interaction within the limits of a developed future-oriented plan. Then again, the main approaches of the staff were as follows: prioritizing and focusing; not giving up; thinking positively; always smiling; getting help from colleagues; having good working relationships; being flexible; and, trying to adapt to the working environment. Herein, considering the rank of the participants and their responses, we can conclude that on the contrary to the supervisors, the staff did not face complex achievement challenges and had low achievement need.

8.7 Conclusion

Even though the ITC is 50% UN and half WTO entity, the physical layout of the organization gives the impression of UN organization. Group dynamics are important components of organizational culture. Therefore, during meetings, the participants attempt to find common ground through intensive and respectful discussions. Each

participant listens to the others quite carefully. They examine each other's views and experiences, and encourage expression of opinions, even when they are not in agreement. In addition, Friday is informal dress day in the organization. This policy reflects on the organization's awareness regarding the individuality of each staff member and gives off the feeling that the personnel are working for an organization that does not intend to dominate all aspects of their lives, and also respects their right to have their personal time on weekends.

The ITC provides professional support to SMEs in developing or undeveloped countries. This relation has a reflexive aspect. Even though the ITC constructs SME organizational structure and values, it also affects them by in terms of flexible, collaborative, knowledge, trust, and result-based organization; this is also reflected in participants understanding of power. A Foucauldian understanding of power emerges in the context of seen knowledge as a primary source of power. In addition, while staff define ways of power gaining and maintaining, they also put an emphasis on staying on a virtuous path. This preference identifies Kantian deontological ethics. Moreover, Charismatic, value based, transformational, team oriented, human oriented and participative leadership are preferred by the participants and their motivation level is seen as high. Participants are satisfied with what they are dealing in the organization.

CHAPTER 9

THE WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION (WHO)

9.1 Introduction

As a specialized agency of the UN, the WHO was established on 07 April 1948 in Geneva. It is the authority at the head of the international health system within the UN by providing leadership on critical health issues, advancing knowledge, shaping the research agenda, framing norms and standards, establishing ethical and evidence-based health approaches, providing technical support for underdeveloped and developing countries, and monitoring health matters all over the world (<http://www.who.int/about/what-we-do/en/>).

Semi-structured interviews, focus group activity, and non-participatory observations (a three-day schedule) were conducted at the facilities of the WHO, with the participation of six supervisors (interviewees), six staff (in a focus groups), the researcher, and a professional assistant (especially for focus groups). The interviews and focus group discussions were recorded. While the shortest interview lasted 24.22 minutes, the longest took 60 minutes, and the average was 38.41 minutes. On the other hand, the focus group discussions lasted 72 minutes. The findings of the WHO will be analysed and interpreted according to the explanations that are provided in Chapter 6.1.

9.2 Organizational Culture

9.2.1 Artifacts

Security concerns, meeting rooms, artworks, and social responsibility were important components of the physical layout of the organization. There was a security guard waiting in front of automatic sliding doors, on which was written on both sides, in English, Spanish, French, Arabic, Russian and Chinese, *The World Health Organization*. After passing through the second door, security guards must be informed about the reason for the visit. The internal contact was called and after his/her arrival, an entrance card was provided, for a visit into the main building of the WHO. The main building occupied a rather large section of the grounds and was connected to the other WHO buildings via long passages. It had eight floors above, and two more below ground. At the entrance, there was a World Health Assembly Pictures Exhibition, highlighting staff who

work on the EBOLA issue in Africa. There was a large painting, with variant colours, on the wall near the cafeteria, and the staff used the area as a main meeting point. Moreover, there was an exhibition which showed the provided services of the WHO in underdeveloped countries. Some meeting rooms were on the ground floor. In addition, there were special meeting rooms inside the library and there was a special lunch room in a reserved area for meetings. There were a number of warnings that signified that the entire ground was a smoke-free zone. In addition, there were some handicapped toilets on the ground floor, and a medical room, called, “staff health & well-being service”, for health problems and consultation of the staff. Furthermore, there was a small meditation room where staff from different religions can worship universally, and a break-room on the eight floor, with seven sleeping sofas. Tired and somnolent staff may use this room whenever they need to.

There was an additional building, which was located in view of the main edifice, shared by the UNAIDS and the WHO: The 1st, 2nd and 3rd floors were utilized by UNAIDS staff, and the 4th floor was used by the WHO. Hence, at the entrance of the building, both organizations’ names and logos were inscribed separately in all official UN languages. After entering through the revolving door, again stating the name of the internal contact to the security guard was necessary. After having once again a visitor’s pass issued, it becomes possible to enter the offices. At the entrance of the building, there were two statues, a number of computers for use by visitors, and a few stands which displayed publications of the WHO and UNAIDS. There was a handicapped toilet, and also a common for both sexes on the ground floor. On the other floors, in addition to handicapped toilets, female and male ones are found in separate quarters. There was a small meditation room where staff from different religions can worship universally, and a break-room on the ground floor where they could rest or sleep.

Even though the supplemental building is shared by a different organization, both facilities have similar characteristics. There were two main types of offices at the organization. The first type was the enclosed. Some P5 level supervisors, coordinators and directors, were assigned their own workroom, while all the others shared a room for between two and six staff members. Interaction between staff who shared the same enclosed office was pretty limited and mostly revolved around work. The main interaction in the office was between the staff and their computer screens. Some reminder notes were attached to the panels in the office, such as, consultant pay ranges, phone

numbers, and life mottos, such as: never ever give up; life is way too short; and life is better when you are laughing. In addition, according to the number of staff, there were windows in the offices. The second type of bureaux were open types which were shared by six to one hundred staff per room. Similar to enclosed offices, interaction of staff was rather poor and limited as they constantly work away on their computers, and if not necessary, they did not even look at each other. When supervisors needed to speak to their staff, they did so at a short distance, but on the other hand, staff mostly sent emails to their superiors for the same purpose. Staff were also not welcoming to visitors. What is more, in order not to disturb others, they spoke with a soft voice while talking to one another in the open offices. Some staff used headsets to mask outside noises.

To discuss non-urgent issues, supervisors and staff meet once a week as a matter of course for project reviews. At the meeting, some staff kept showing up even after the commencement of the proceedings. Notwithstanding the warning placard forbidding the use of mobile phones, drinking, or eating in the meeting room, some were still using their phones, drinking, and eating fruit. Although there were many participants, only the same supervisors and staff were asking questions, making jokes, or contributing in any way to the discussions. There was a warm, less hierarchical, and friendly organizational climate that encouraged sharing information and increasing awareness levels. However, when the staff participated in a meeting with state representatives, while the latter sat inside on reserved seats, the former either sat or stood outside. Hence, the researcher got the impression that the main participants were state representatives while the organization's own staff were actually somewhat excluded. I think they also felt the same, since at the end of the meeting, all questions were put by state representatives and not even one inquiry were placed by staff of the WHO.

Many symbols, posters, artworks and logos could be found in every corner of the organization. Posters displayed the main products of the organization by referring to its projects – such as, *Global Outbreak Alert and Response Network (GOARN)*, and, *the International Centre for Diarrhoeal Disease Research (ICDDR) 50 years of saving lives (1960-2010)*. Moreover, promoting health through the life-course, especially in undeveloped and developing countries, was another main work subject. There were many exhibitions with the theme, *the WHO provided services in underdeveloped countries*. In addition to the art aspect, at the sub-text of these exhibitions, there was a

recognition of staff and their efforts in the field, which demonstrated they were valuable to the organization.

The WHO, as a UN agency, has six official UN languages. Especially, in meetings with delegates of member states, simultaneous translations in all official languages are being conducted. However, generally speaking, the routine language is English but most greet one another mostly in French. Also, there are many terms and abbreviations related to health issues often utilized in meetings and daily discussions, such as Hepatitis B and C, Malaria, Ebola, AIDS, cancer, SDG (Sustainable Development Goal), HIV (The Human Immunodeficiency Virus), VEF (Voluntary Emergency Relief Fund), and GHO (Global Health Observatory).

Male coordinators and higher executives wear formal business attire and have daily shaves. Female executives prefer mostly dark suits with jackets. Other personnel wear smart casual clothing. There are two different coffee break rituals within the organizational culture, based on the etiquette of the staff at work. This differentiation may stem from the profile of the workforce and impact of other sister organizations (UNAIDS). Personnel who work in the adjacent building are mostly medical doctors who have more workaholic manners. In addition, they are influenced by a different organizational culture as well. Staff who work at the main building receive four coffee breaks, at 09:30, 10:30, 13:30 and 15:30, and mostly discuss work issues on their second break. On the other hand, staff who work at the adjacent building get two coffee breaks per day. In lieu of going to the cafeteria, they either tend to use the shared facility area in order to prepare their own beverage using their own water kettle and dry coffee, or take coffee from the coffee machine and return to their desks and continue working whilst drinking it. They start going to lunch at noon, but a majority prefer 12:30. Lunch takes an average of forty-five minutes. Most prefer to drink something after lunch and return to their offices at 14:00. Even though lunch breaks can be extended for two hours, most grab a sandwich or a salad and utilize this time to participate in lunch seminars and panels on health matters, and personal development issues.

9.2.2 Espoused Beliefs and Values

The WHO's primary role is to direct and coordinate international health issues within the UN system. In order to carry out this role, it constructs health policies for a

number of countries. Moreover, this construction is also reflected within the organization through such policies as no-smoking rules, provision of hand sterilization machines, bequest of free male and female preservatives, and posting of fliers on ways to prevent disease. The WHO also takes on the responsibility of informing all its staff on health issues. The WHO does not only try to lead the world on issues of health, but also to point out to its own staff the importance of starting awareness at their own home base. Awareness is an important component of the organizational culture of the organization. There are other options, such as lunch seminars and panels, for staff who seek to gain an awareness of issues not limited to their specialization. These attempts of raising awareness also indicate that the WHO is a knowledge-based institution.

One of the personnel claimed that while she was undertaking an internship at the organization, she worked with a “sexist boss” who gave all the credit and feedback to her male associates, even though they were all performing the same acts. Moreover, she thought that there was a male domination status quo at the executive level. Except for this participant, others did not believe that there is a gender problem at the organization:

“...So, weirdly, we are a very female team, which is quite unusual, but we do have men in the team. It is not really an issue...”

“...There is no gender preference and really we are depending on expertise of individuals instead of gender...”

“...For me, I have a responsibility to deliver. So, if they are all males, I would not mind. If they are all females, I would not mind either. So, gender should not be a factor at all. I think this is a good view, because it is idealistic and gender neutral...”

“...I am female as well, I want to make sure that women, if they’re good, have the same opportunity as men. And to the same effect that men who are really good might not have as many chances now...”

“There is no gender in my team. They are all treated equally. But when it comes to health, of course, I pay attention. No gender. Clearly no gender issues considered.”

“C: Personally, I have not heard of any tasks in an international organization that’s reserved for man or woman.”

E: No, there is no issues but it is just interesting to know that 70% of the people working here are female. They cannot deny that.

Therefore, the second espoused value is related to the gender issue, that, “*there is no gender inequality at work*”.

It can be concluded that one of the visions of the organization – *to work in line with the public good* – reflects the subtext of participant responses. Here an espoused value emerges, that, “we are here for a good cause”.

“...I think it is really interesting work, a real privilege work we have. You meet fascinating people and are very lucky to be involved with... Well, my personal experience is that I’m a clinician, so I’ve spent a lot of time looking after patients at grassroots, which is rewarding. But if you work in the next level, much higher level, you can really affect things for populations. You can really make a big change and this is hugely motivating.”

“I think the WHO and these type of organizations, the mission is very clear. This is the mission and if what people are interested in joining the mission and to help to give good health then they’ll join. If they feel like they’re not fit for that, they need to leave.”

“...They should feel that they are doing useful, and recognizable, and that should be appreciated, and openly...”

“...I think a lot of people are well motivated for the public health output...”

9.2.3 Basic Underlying Assumptions

The participants evaluate how they react towards unexpected events in the following manner. It can be easily seen that unexpected events are part of their work routine. Related to this taken for granted belief, there is a basic underlying assumption: “Unexpected events happen all the time in the organization”.

“...This is very common and happens all the time...”

“...Well I think is natural for these types of events...”

“Unexpected events? Of course, if you make imaginary team work, like in some instances soccer coaches have said that they have made imaginary games in their minds, everything goes fine. But when it comes to real life and human situations, not everybody is 100% professional or not the professionalism they understand is understood in the same way.”

“You just go along with it...”

A: Be cheerful about it. Do not always expect that if things are unexpected that things have to change at face value because things are not always as complicated and so much of a shock as they might seem but be flexible. I mean you have to be. It does not matter how kind of unchanging you thought something was. You have to be prepared for something else to give way.

D: I just deal with it and try to learn something in the process and be better for the next time and not to plan too much also.

C: Well, it is pretty much the same everywhere I think. We just deal with it. Unexpected things happen here every day.

B: I love that. I have got a short attention span and I get bored really easily and if something new comes along, I am like, “uh ha”, depending if it is boring or not.

Meetings, as an important component of the organizational culture, are utilized for the goals of ensuring good human nature, improving performance, team spirit, and a sense of belonging. To this effect, “*meetings are necessary at work*”, is another basic underlying assumption in the organization.

While evaluating the impact of manifold nationalities in the work environment on staff motivation, they do not see its impact on motivation. They see motivation from a more intrinsic perspective, and hence, they do not find any reason to develop a specific motivation model regarding different nationalities. As can be seen from the following, they assume that “motivation concept is related to personality rather than nationalities”.

“...I do not think cultural issues really affect motivation. Motivation is something with the staff...”

“...So, motivation is a factor of individual factors, you know, how you are yourself in terms of ambitions, conscientious, you know, dedicated, and how you’re trained...”

“I would not say that it is because of the nationality. I would say it is up to individuals...”

“A: There are probably positions which are culturally imbued, but it is more about personalities. I would not say that if I am looking at the way I manage people and motivation in a room, I do not look at them and break them down according to nationalities and see how will I target them. I do it because I know that so and so tends to be a bit depressive about things and therefore how to I counteract that according to the character and I do not link that to where they came from.

C: I agree... But I think all those reasons were based on personality and not nationality, but there are many different ways you can motivate people, like by

giving challenging work, by paying correctly, by giving them work in the field, by giving them work at the office, depending on what they want, and what they excel at. And that is not based on nationality.”

Even though there are five types of staff categorizations, the participants develop a basic underlying assumption, that “there are two types of staff in the organization: professionals and then the others”. This view finds its roots in that professionals, unlike others, have permanent contracts and can use many organizational benefits, such as high salaries, educational grants for family members, and special leaves, amongst other perks, to complement their already higher levels of remuneration. Finally, the summary of all three cultural layers is given in Table 9.1.

Artefacts	Security concerns, meeting rooms, artworks, social responsibility, non-classic IO, open door policy, non-verbal communication, posters, artworks and logos (symbols), English (speaking language), French (saluting language), health terminology, two different coffee breaks (ritual), and health reflection.
Espoused Values	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Awareness, - There is no gender inequality in the organization, - We are here for a good cause.
Basic Underlying Assumptions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Unexpected events always occur all the time, - The motivation concept is related to personality rather than nationalities, - There are two types of staff in the organization: professionals and then the others, - Meetings are necessary at work.

Table 9.1: Summary of the WHO Organizational Culture

9.3 National Culture

The first interview question investigated supervisors’ main concerns while working in a multicultural environment. Only one supervisor had no concerns when working with staff from different nationalities. Others’ concerns focused on components of culture, such as difficulty to use humour, clarity of spoken English, national work ethics, and

acclimating newcomers with the organization, their team, and the different meanings of symbols, colours and gestures. These concerns indicate supervisors' awareness to cultural sensitivities.

The third interview¹²² and fourth focus group questions¹²³ investigated UA dimension. Almost all participants showed low UA, as they took unexpected events normally and tried to find daily solutions. While dealing with these kinds of events, they mostly tried to deal with them instantaneously and relied on team interactions and the leadership factor. Per contra, only one person showed high UA by expressing his dislike of these kinds of events:

"I am not always that way. Actually, I do not like unexpected. The kind, it puts me off sometimes. But when it comes, part of being professional is that sometimes you have to understand that these things happen. If it is something that is unavoidable, and then I just do it. If it is something that is a recurrent bad habit, I try to correct it but of course, if it's unexpected, and it's something that happened out of the blue, then I deal with it immediately."

The fourth and seventh interview questions, and third focus group query, examined HO and Assertiveness dimensions. The supervisors had a tendency to encourage high HO by putting emphasis on staff interests and individual recognition, establishing a friendly work environment, and overlapping individual and organizational values. Then again, regarding developing a relationship with staff outside of work, in order to keep a power distance, they showed low HO characteristics through limited outside socialization and interaction. In addition, this preference reflected on their relations and left them the power to decide on the amount of socialization with their staff. This tendency also gave off the impression of high assertiveness orientation. Yet, regarding meeting out of work with their supervisors, there was a balance amongst the staff, which led to a result of high, low, and in between, HO. Even though three out of six did not like to partake in social activities, they still did, which indicated characteristics of low assertiveness. Oppositely, the other three insisted on their preference and seem to have more friendly relationships with their supervisor, making us conclude that this group had high assertiveness.

¹²² 3rd interview question: What do you think of unexpected events that happen while working with multinational teams?

¹²³ 4th focus group question: What do you think about unexpected events that occur in your team?

The 5th interview and focus group questions explored IC dimension, which was encouraged by the supervisors through regular team meetings, group retreats and lunches, anticipating problems in advance, creating a common language and goal amongst team members, assigning a team name, providing autonomy, communicating, and showing respect to each member of the team. Staff expressed their eagerness to be a valuable member of the team and its teamwork, yet seen from the subtexts of some of their remarks, they still had the tendency to see themselves as individual entities; examples such as: having individual tasks, and being acknowledged and appreciated individually. If we regarded collectivism, in lieu of individual acknowledgment or appreciation, a collective acknowledgment or appreciation could have been emphasized. On the other hand, only two participants mentioned common wisdom and a friendly environment. Except for these two, the others had low IC.

The 6th interview and focus group questions investigated IGC dimension. IGC was also strengthened by the participants through similar activities which were recommended vis-à-vis providing team spirit. Alternatively, staff showed low IGC characteristics. When we looked at their profiles, it could be seen that they were young. As one of the participants inferred, “the IO Headquarters was not suitable for young staff members”, as he had seen no action there. Accordingly, he believed that, “Headquarters, with its monotone working structure, was akin to a retirement location”. Consequently, such a result as discussed, may emerge.

The 7th focus group and 8th interview questions investigated GE in the context of IOs. All the participants encouraged high GE and did not see any reason to take into consideration sex issues while distributing power, roles and responsibilities, at work.

The 8th focus group and 9th and 10th interview questions examined FO and PO dimensions. Regarding time orientation at work, FO is the most common for supervisors. One supervisor defined himself as present oriented, two were a mixture of both present and future oriented, and three were FO. In addition, high PO was seen among their methods of performance improvement. Even though team meetings and retreats were seen as part of these efforts, the main approach was identifying personalized attributes and developing a special approach for each individual. In order to manage this, communication channels were kept open, many individual meetings were conducted, and a timeline was developed. Moreover, while the supervisors focused on achieving their

own objectives, they showed high FO through developing a long-term timeline and regularly adjusting priorities and objectives at every phase. One of the supervisors used a combination of time management, human resource management, and fund management. Contrariwise, only one staff showed high FO and PO by using systematic *breaking the work down* approach and taking on control of the job all by himself. The other staff either relied on their colleagues for help or procrastinated, or just did it without a specific approach. The summary of all dimensions is given in Table 9.2.

Dimensions	UA	HO	Power Distance	IC	IGC	GE	PO	Assertiveness	FO
Degree	Low and high	Low, middle, and high	Low and high	Low and high	Low and high	High	Low and high	Low and high	Low and high

Table 9.2: Summary of the WHO Participants' National Cultural Characteristics

9.4 Power

The supervisors' description of power characteristics can be divided into two typologies, as hard and soft. Hard power characteristics are, holding a high position in the hierarchy, producing a processed output, having opportunities to manage money and staff, and having the ability to decide. Furthermore, during observations, it was realized that the main status perquisites are, special parking places, separate and special furnished rooms, printers, and having secretaries. Coordinators and directors have parking spaces outside of the building, separate and special furniture rooms, printers, and secretaries. To these effects, the main hard power holders in the organization are coordinators and directors. The power need develops in the axis of being recognized through holding status. In contrast, characteristics of soft power are, having the ability to conduct negotiations and consensus, being knowledgeable, and acting as a group. In these ways, while hard power encourages high power distance, contrariwise, soft power stimulates low power distance.

Regarding the power concept, even though the staff did not state so explicitly, we can infer that their collective opinion leans heavily on the “*virtù*” concept. It is posited that public opinion or virtue can be ignored for a while in order to achieve a greater goal. Herein, an elitist expression emerges which sees itself beyond the “public” and justifies its actions, even when not grasping the reasons or being virtuous: “we do this for the greater good”. This argument supports the Machiavellian teleological approach as well. What is more, in line with the ability to influence the attainment of the mission, well-connected networks are defined as power components in the context of IOs.

9.5 Leadership

While defining the main effective leadership characteristics, the supervisors highlighted some of the attributes of the charismatic/value based leadership style, such as being visionary, having the ability to motivate, sharing accolades, facilitating discussions, showing respect, providing transparency, demonstrating cultural sensitivity, being non-threatening, having smarts, and being fair. In addition, they placed much importance on being able to understand staff's values, develop tailored-based management for each individual, and empowerment as regards the individual values of each member. On the other hand, according to the staff, being a role model was an important attribute of effective leadership:

“D: The ability to gather people around an idea or a project.

B: Trust and motivation I would say. Definitely to get their trust and make people do something even when they are not almost wanting to do it. But I would not know which one to choose because I would not go with any of those on how I would pick a leader. The one I aspire to is also the one I would want to be. Like a role model. Why I would choose him.

F: I think an effective leader is someone who takes responsibility.

E: Someone who has the ability to gather people around an idea. Is capable of taking responsibility. And someone who is willing to go the extra mile just to show the others the right path and who leads by example.

C: Exactly. That is the first thing for me. A good leader is one who leads by example. It is not one that commands but actually does. He leads by example. He shows how to do things. He's skilled in what he does and knowledgeable. So the leader basically should be knowledgeable and skilled in whatever he does. He leads by example and can build trust in his team. For me that is an effective leader in any area.”

Moreover, during department meetings, the Director placed importance on sharing information and raising the level of awareness at events and occurrences. To this effect, he also illustrated that providing coordination between the teams is an important asset of his leadership approach.

9.6. Motivation

The 13th interview question investigated the effects of cultural differences on staff motivation. According to the supervisors, national background did not make an impact on motivation concept but every individual had their own reasons to be motivated. Likewise, the 9th focus group question examined the same subject. The staff did not find any difficulty in working with a multicultural workforce. They believed that motivation was tied more to personality rather than nationality.

The 14th interview question examined specific examples of increasing or decreasing motivation of staff. The supervisors gave some demotivating and motivating factors which were based on their previous work experiences. Demotivating factors were: giving negative feedback, especially publicly, even with non-verbal communication; not saying a simple thanks; open conflict environment; a demanding boss; imposing drudgeries; and having an unmotivated supervisor. On the contrary, motivating factors were: giving positive feedback and responsibility; organizing routine drinks, retreats and field work abroad; repeating PSM; recognition through helping staff promotion; giving credit publicly; showing concern; and listening to the staff.

What is more, the 15th interview question scrutinized the most effective motivational tools for staff motivation. Supervisors categorized them into two groupings, as monetary and non-monetary. Firstly, monetary tools were, a well-paid salary and benefits, such as, educational grants for their children, and home leave. Secondly, non-monetary tools were, having appraisal systems, leader's clear guiding, acknowledgement, more promotion options, having human resource staff coming from the field, building team spirit, sharing a vision, forming the team with that vision, allowing everybody's contribution, developing individualized motivation systems according to the capacity and characteristics of the staff, recognizing individually such open appreciation and respect, attending international conferences, travel opportunities, getting more responsibility, hiring more motivated persons, and mobility or rotation of staff.

In addition, focus group's final question explored, "How staff can be motivated in the context of IOs?" Staff defined the main motivational tools, for the staff of IOs, as: permanent contracts; facing new challenges; establishing a learning environment; reducing bureaucracy; providing more flexibility; encouraging new ideas; establishing an efficient performance system; fairness in all organizational decisions; showing respect; increasing awareness of staff's PSM; and having a good supervisor.

Regarding McClelland need of motivation theory, while the supervisors dealt with unexpected events, they showed characteristics of high affiliation need through relying on team interaction and favouring collaboration. Per contra, the staff relied on individual solutions which lead us to the conclusion of them having low affiliation need. High affiliation need was also apparent in the good human natured encouragement efforts of the supervisors. They established interpersonal relationships, and teamwork, with their staff by attending home parties, retreats, regularly held collectives and one on one meetings, and building a friendly and non-threatening working environment. While creating team spirit, the supervisors continued to show high affiliation characteristics by encouraging collective actions such as team meetings, retreats and lunches, and communicating regularly. What is more, supervisors' attempts of ensuring a sense of belonging also demonstrated high affiliation characteristics: appearing in team meetings, retreats, working across teams, and building communication channels.

When supervisors described their relationship with their staff, there was a separation between professional and personal life. Therefore, it can be concluded that they showed high affiliation characteristics at work, but on the other hand, there was a low affiliation need amongst them under out-of-work-period situations, like limited and occasional outside meetings.

"I do not want to have a particular friendship with one person in the team. So, I want to treat everyone in the same way. So, I do not want to have a favourite or spend a lot of time with one person. So, I try to have a similar relationship with everyone."

"I think that work and personal life need to be separate."

"We are not drinking buddies outside of the work with everybody..."

"I think that our relationship at work is good and only occasionally do we do socializing outside, because I think I am in a different stage of my life than any of

my team members, in that I have a family, I have different things to do, I am in a different place, but I think the team themselves, interact socially. So, if they interact without me, that is fine, and probably they need that too. You know, they need to interact, without their boss around.”

“I have two kids and partner who always keep me busy. I have life as a full family so I don’t have much time.”

“Rarely, like 2 or 3 times a year do we meet socially.”

Concerning affiliation needs, there were two differing opinions amongst the staff when discussing socializing out of work: while three out of six preferred to compartmentalize relations as professional and social life, with certain boundaries; the other half preferred a friendlier relationship with their supervisors and team members e.g. partaking in drinks and food outside of work, and even going on holidays. Moreover, except for two out of six of them, the others encouraged individual identity in order to develop team spirit. This preference pointed to the findings that four members of the staff had low affiliation need, and conversely the other two held the opposite view when it comes to team spirit. Again, regarding the sense of belonging, the same four participants stated that they did not have any sense of belonging to the organization. The other two did not explicitly express their feelings towards this issue. These expressions also supported the findings of low affiliation need by the four staff.

Regarding the achievement need, the supervisors focused on setting their objectives in a timeframe and reaching them. In addition, individual attributes of the staff are taken into consideration. A tailored base approach was utilized through keeping open communication channels, holding individual meetings, and timetabled audits. Contrariwise, only one staff showed high achievement need through developing a systematic achievement approach (breaking the work down and setting deadlines) and relying on himself. Three preferred to ask other experienced members’ opinions and share information with them. The other two have not developed a systematic approach: one inferred that she just did it, and the other refers to herself as the biggest procrastinator; after work she treats herself by various acts, such as buying a brownie. We could conclude that amongst this group, low achievement need was widespread.

Moreover, during observations, it was realized that the amenities, such as break-rooms, gyms, shared facility areas, and a meditation room, are pretty useful for increasing staff motivation. Still, on some floors, posts were written on the walls of the

halls. These kinds of messages may be helpful in order to increase awareness towards motivation concepts as well.

9.7 Conclusion

The WHO does not tend to give the impression of being a classical bureaucratic international organization. There are many health-centric considerations found in the building such as, hand sterilization machines, no-smoking signs, break rooms, a medical room, and water and drink machines. In addition, a number of photographic exhibitions and paintings provide for a more relaxed atmosphere. Indeed, unlike other organizations, there is a rather interesting arrangement of staff correlated to the number of windows found in their enclosed offices. Furthermore, staff's sense of belonging was invigorated with souvenirs with the WHO logo, which consolidated the image of how important it is to be a part of the organization. The WHO holds an important mission to helping to solve health problems all over the world. This mission also reflects the organization's health-centric implementations identified in the physical layout of the organizations. These implementations, are referred to as Lukes' (2005) third dimension of power, as they are utilized highly effectively by the organization to convince staff to accept and adopt organizational missions and social objectives. In order to provide this public good, the staff did not show any concern regarding virtuous procedures and their consequentialist approach indicated the main characteristics of Machiavellian teleological ethics.

There is a consensus among participants as charismatic /value based leadership best fits for the definition of effective leadership. Moreover, while the participants explaining their motivational expectations, they mostly describe non-monetary motivational tools. Following a conclusion of the research process, analysis and interpretation for each organization, the next chapter will make a comparison between all four organizations and attempt to find similarities and differences between them. This comparison will be useful for development of the theoretical framework.

CHAPTER 10

COMPARISON of THE INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

10.1 Introduction

While in the previous chapters each organization was independently analysed and its data interpreted, in this section, they will be compared with each other. During this comparison, according to organizational and national culture, power, leadership and motivation categories, similarities and differences of the organizations will be highlighted by a critical approach rooted in the researcher's own understanding of the matter.

10.2 Organizational Culture

With the exception of the ITC, artwork holds an important place in the physical layout of the other three organizations. As Schein (2004) described in the first level of his culture model, these artworks not only offer artistic worth to the organization and demonstrate its visible face, but they also represent their organizational values. In addition, they can be viewed as reflections of main work characteristics vis-à-vis physical layouts. For example, instead of a classic IO, because of their close relations with the private sector, the ITC connotes a private company. The UNCTAD is a research oriented organization, hence, it gives the impression of a grand library. The health-centric implementations can be seen on every floor of the WHO while trade values are embedded into the architectural design of the WTO.

An open-door policy is common amongst the WTO, the ITC and the WHO. However, staff of the WHO are not very warm to the idea of this policy. Per contra, the staff of the WTO and the ITC are welcome to their visitors and seem happy with this course of action. Herein, staff of the UNCTAD implement implicit close door policy and there is a rather limited interaction even between team members. Due to lack of proper dialog, non-verbal communication is common among staff of the UNCTAD and the WHO. On the other hand, the staff of the WTO utilize mostly verbal communication while ITC staff effectively use both verbal and non-verbal modes of interchange. An implicit closed-door policy, and frequently utilizing non-verbal communication tools, can also offer an idea about the GLOBE Study's power distance dimension in the organizations. It can be

easily inferred that the UNCTAD's organizational climate is encouraging high power distance more than others.

Clothing is also a part of Schein's artifact level as organizational characteristics can be embedded in administrative dress code policy as well. Generally, the personnel of all four organizations prefer smart casual clothing. This preference gives off the impression of a relaxed work environment. However, higher level executives and any staff who have meetings with externals, or outside of the organization, wear formal business attire. Normally, it is not dictated to wear suits, but when meeting with externals, as a custom, staff and supervisors follow this procedure consistently. Additionally, Friday is an informal-dress day at the ITC. This policy provides a more comfortable working environment and indicates respect by the organization towards staff rights of having their weekend.

Language is not only a part of artifacts, it is also a key element of espoused values and basic underlying assumptions. In order to provide consensus vis-à-vis organizational aims, there is need for a common language. This also ensures transference of values and assumptions to the staff. What is more, these values and assumptions are transferred to newcomers by language as well. Even though there are six official UN and WTO languages, English is preferred to be used in daily work discussions and French is seen as a salutation language. What is more, according to the focal point of the organizations, technical terminology and abbreviations are utilized most frequently. Geneva is a Francophone city, and hence, environmental factors also influence the language preference of staff. Besides, the UN encourages staff to learn its official languages by providing them free language courses. Therefore, even though French is currently only utilized for salutations, there is the prospect that it can be utilized among staff in daily work discussions as well.

The main difference between a symbol and a picture is that embedded connotations in symbols can represent something different than their appearance. Symbols hold an important place in the depiction of artifacts and can provide variant perspectives for organizations to institutionalize values and assumptions. Logos, artworks, posters, and publications are the main symbols that are utilized in all of the above mentioned institutions. Organizations use these symbols as reference tools vis-à-

vis their missions, goals, and organizational values. These implicit attempts at utilizing symbols seem to facilitate staff's adaptation to organizational values.

Furthermore, rituals point out the main visible traits of culture in any society. Organizations are not that different from societies; unique rituals of organizations provide an idea of their work customs and characteristics. Regarding rituals, coffee and lunch breaks are diligently observed at each organization. While the staff who work at the WTO, the UNCTAD, and at the main building of the WHO, take four coffee breaks per day, those who work at the ITC, and the supplementary edifice of the WHO, get only two coffee breaks in the same period. Lunch break generally takes two hours, between noon and 14:00. As well, staff have another ritual via discussing work issues at their morning coffee break, which is around 10:30. These rituals seem unique to these organizations, because the researcher with his limited experience at NATO, some other IOs in Geneva, and public organizations in Turkey, did not observe similar rituals in any of those institutions.

As the second cultural layer of Schein's model, espoused values demonstrate corporate and common values shared by officials and members of organizations. Concerning espoused values, "there is no gender inequality in the organization", is the common value for all these institutions. Also: "Being able to make negotiations"; "Providing Fair and Open Trade"; and, "Peace and Justice", for the WTO; "In order to be recognized by the organization, a research paper must be published", for the UNCTAD; "Being flexible, collaborative, participative, knowledge, trust, and result based", for the ITC; and, "We are here for a good cause" and "Awareness", for the WHO, are the other espoused values. These values are consistent with other research findings as well and point to the unique characteristics of their organizational cultures.

The third level of cultural layer is basic underlying assumptions which indicates the essence of organizational culture. Depth Interpretation of the first and second layers helps us understand this stratum. "Unexpected events always occur in the organization", and "the motivation concept is related to individual characteristics rather than nationalities", are the common basic underlying assumptions for all the organizations. It can be concluded that if unexpected events always occur, they are not unexpected anymore. Hence, the staff are ready to deal with any kind of an event. As well, the other basic underlying assumptions are: "There is not much room for being creative", for the

staff of the WTO; “In order to achieve our objectives, we need a pretty good leader”, for the UNCTAD staff; “There are two types of staff in the organization: professionals and others”, for the staff of the UNCTAD and the WHO; and finally, “Meetings are necessary at work”, for the staff of the ITC and the WHO. Herein, there are more expectations on leadership at the UNCTAD than the other organizations. In addition, if we look at other basic underlying assumption at this organization, we can see that their staff felt excluded. So, we can easily infer that the leadership at the UNCTAD is a hotspot, and hence, officials must pay special attention to this issue.

Regarding organizational culture levels (artifacts, espoused values, and basic underlying assumptions), the comparison of the four IOs is demonstrated in Table 10.1.

<div>Name</div> <div>Cultural Levels</div>	The WTO	The UNCTAD	The ITC	The WHO
Artifacts	<p>Artworks, environment, architectural designing, open door policy, friendly and comfortable work environment, not having unique dress code, logo and artworks (symbols), verbal communication, English (speaking language), French (saluting language) and global trade lingo, four coffees and one lunch breaks, and, discussion of work issues at the second (around 10.30) and fourth (around 15.30-16.30) coffee breaks (rituals).</p>	<p>Dull bureaucracy, high security concerns, artworks, natural life, twist in the organizational climate between work and social dwellings (official working environment and cheerful restaurant and cafeterias), closed door policy, formal interaction, connoting a library, publication and logos (symbol), non-verbal communication, English (speaking language), French (saluting language), and trade terminology, four coffees and one lunch breaks, and, discussion of work issues at the second break (rituals).</p>	<p>Influence of the UN, knowledge and result based organization, group interaction and dynamics, open door policy, no unique dress code, informal dress-day (Fridays), smaller posters (symbol), verbal and non-verbal communication, English (speaking language), French (saluting language) and trade terminology, two coffees and one lunch breaks, discussion of work issues at the first coffee break (around 10.30) (rituals), having reflexive relations with SMEs.</p>	<p>Security concerns, meeting room, artworks, social responsibility, non-classic IO, open door policy, non-verbal communication, posters, artworks and logos (symbols), English (speaking language), French (saluting language) and health terminology, two different coffee breaks (ritual), and health reflection.</p>

Espoused Values	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fair and open trade, - Peace and Justice, - There is no gender inequality in the organization, - Being able to make negotiations. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - There is no gender inequality in the organization, - In order to be recognized by the organization, a research paper must be published. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - There is no gender inequality in the organization, - Being flexible, collaborative, participative, knowledge, trust, and result based. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Awareness, - There is no gender inequality in the organization, - We are here for a good cause.
Underlying Assumptions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Unexpected events always occur in the organization, - The motivation concept is related to individual characteristics rather than nationalities, - There is not much room for being creative (for staff). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Unexpected events always occur in the organization, - National background does not have an impact on motivation of staff in the context of international organization, - In order to achieve our objectives, we need a pretty good leader, - There are two types of staff in the organization: professionals and others. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Unexpected events always occur all the time, - Motivation of staff is not related to their national background and the staff are culture-neutral in the organization, - Meetings are necessary at work. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Unexpected events always occur all the time, - The motivation concept is related to personality rather than nationalities, - There are two types of staff in the organization: professionals and then the others, - Meetings are necessary at work.

Table 10.1: Comparison of the IOs' Organizational Culture

10.3 National Culture

While all supervisors demonstrate low UA, per contra, except for all ITC staff and one at the WHO, the other members show high UA. All participants of the ITC and the WHO, with a single exception, indicate low UA. Hence we can conclude that members of these two organizations, and all the supervisors, do not specially seek to decrease the possibility of unexpected events and are familiar with such occurrences. These finding also point toward the main characteristics of low high context culture in which social norms are valued by interpersonal relations rather than plans and detailed guidelines.

HO was evaluated from two aspects: encouragement of good human nature, and relationship at work and out of work. Firstly, while supervisors encourage good human nature in their teams, all of them show high HO. Secondly, regarding the description of their relationship with staff at work and out of work, only three supervisors of the WTO show high HO, contrariwise, the other three, and the supervisors of the UNCTAD and the WHO, demonstrate low HO. Only the supervisors of the ITC exhibit a midlevel HO. Instead, staff show different spectrums, from low, mid, high, to a mix of low and high. Overall, it can be concluded that specifically, while supervisors discuss theory, they show high HO, but in practice, except for three supervisors of the WTO, they all demonstrate low HO. Herein, a managerial inconsistency emerges between discourse and action. This also reflects negatively on the staff's expectations on leadership, because while some participants defined effective leadership, they inferred that being a role model was a fundamental effective leadership characteristic.

The UNCTAD and the ITC have high power distance, while power is mostly identified from a hard power perspective with the level of hierarchy. As Lukes (2005) defined in his first dimension, the power lies in their decision-making processes. On the other hand, there is a Foucauldian intersubjective power linkage present at the WTO, and the WHO, as individual and group. While group power encourages low power distance, in contrast, individual power strengthens high power distance in these organizations. We can conclude that as an important power dynamic, social network is pretty effective in these two organizations.

Regarding IC, only five out of six staff members displayed low tendency, while the remaining demonstrated high propensity. The results for the WTO are rather interesting, because normally, and as occurs in other organizations, staff are expected to encourage collective distribution of resources and action. All the staff are lawyers and have high assertiveness characteristics as well. They place more emphasis on individuality, especially as concerns achievement and recognition issues. These attributes may lead to such results. On the other side, except for three out of five supervisors at the UNCTAD, the rest encourage high IC. This result is not surprising for the UNCTAD, because organizational culture vaguely encourages individuality rather than collective action.

As concerns IGC, ITC, and the WHO, they all have the same results: only four staff from each organization demonstrates low IGC. All the other participants show the reverse. These other three organizations encourage using “We” as a subject through expressing loyalty to their organizations and establishing a mutual dependence relationship. Herein, there is a rather large contrast in the results from the UNCTAD. Even though the negative impact of the UNCTAD’s organizational culture encourages low IGC by placing too much emphasis on individual publications and achievements, all participants show high in-group collectivism. This contrast has the likelihood to lead to some significant problems when it comes to the motivation of personnel and creating common identity at the organization.

IOs are like rainbows with all their colours on them. They host manifold nationalities. However, gender roles are different in every nation and society. For example, while many men do not contribute to housework in Middle-Eastern countries, housework is not labelled as a female occupation in most European countries. Although people work in an international environment, they still hold their national characteristics. To this effect, how will their national traits reflect on their international work environment is an interesting question to ponder upon. However, all the participants promote gender equality and therefore gender egalitarianism is high amongst them. This result is coherent with organizational policies which aim to minimize gender differences as well.

Regarding the assertiveness dimension, while supervisors and staff show high assertiveness when it comes to out of work relations, in the work context they show completely opposite behaviours, as demonstrated by more conciliatory gestures. This contrast can be explained by their understanding of professionalism and the impact of

organizational culture on their actions. Moreover, other supervisors also show medium and high assertiveness orientation. This finding is also consistent with the nature of supervisors, because as Lukes (2005) infers in his first dimension of power, they see making decisions as a part of their power capacity, and to this effect, they desire to implement their own principles in the work environment. Alternatively, with the exception of the ITC staff, other members have low assertiveness orientation.

There is a reflexive relationship between national culture and organizational culture; their clash affects both individuals and organizations. For example, while all the supervisors show high FO behaviours, except for all UNCTAD and one WHO staff member, others demonstrate low FO behaviours. This differentiation between supervisors and staff may be explained with limited promotion options of IOs, as there are rather restricted advancement opportunities in these institutions. Hence, the main inclinations of the staff turn on saving what is at hand and just receiving their salaries, not getting involved in any future planning. Instead, even though the supervisors are affected negatively by promotion policies, they show tendencies to protect their current positions. In accordance with the cultural dimensions of the GLOBE study, the results of the comparison are shown in Table 10.2.

<div> <div>Name</div> <div>Dimensions</div> </div>	The WTO	The UNCTAD	The ITC	The WHO
UA	Low and high	Low and high	Low	Low and high
HO	Low and high	Low and high	Low, middle and high	Low, middle and high
IC	Low and high	Low and high	High	Low and high
IGC	High	Low and high	Low and high	Low and high
GE	High	High	High	High
PO	Low and high	Low	High	Low and high
Assertiveness	High	Low and high	Middle and high	Low and high
FO	Low and high	High	Low and high	Low and high

Table 10.2: Comparison of the IOs' National Culture

10.4 Power

While describing power characteristics in the context of IOs, two main types of power, as hard and soft, have emerged in the organizations. Lukes' (2005) three dimensions well explains the reflection of hard and soft power in these four organizations, especially with the linkage of Foucault and Machiavelli power understandings. The first dimension of Lukes' represents hard power as holding a high position in the hierarchy in which supervisors desire to be effective in the decision-making process. The power need of the WTO and WHO participants has developed on the axis of individual recognition by the organization, by such acts as, providing special status perquisites to higher positions in the hierarchy, and displaying awareness of individual achievements. In addition, Lukes' second dimension is a version of soft power in IOs as setting and shaping the agenda. The findings supported that even staff who are in subordinate positions have a desire to know what is going on and be part of setting the agenda. The power need of the UNCTAD and ITC participants was seen mostly in the centre of organizational and individual acquisition, such as, being able to utilize resources and information, and setting and shaping an agenda and a vision. Furthermore, the other soft power type is Lukes' third dimension which is related to the Foucauldian linkage of power and knowledge and Machiavellian manipulation approach. The findings at the UNCTAD and ITC indicate that Foucauldian knowledge and power relation is supported by the participants. They agree that knowledge produces power through social networks and having knowledge is important whilst acquiring and maintaining influence at the organization. On the other hand, while defining power, except for the ITC staff and one member of the UNCTAD who encouraged Kantian deontological ethics, all the others supported the Machiavellian teleological approach. These findings indicate that the main tendency of the staff is to gain results by whatever means at hand, even open to manipulation of truths.

Likewise, national cultural characteristic of Power Distance was evaluated from two different perspectives. The first one involved investigating how supervisors improve the performance of their team members at work. As regards this issue, UNCTAD supervisors have a low Power Distance. WTO supervisors show characteristics of a mix of low and high Power Distance. Finally, supervisors of the ITC and the WHO demonstrate high Power Distance. The second perspective is related to how supervisors and staff achieve their objectives at work. Here again, both supervisors and staff of the

UNCTAD have low Power Distance. It can be assumed that there are some problems regarding organizational encouragement and rewarding strategies for performance improvement and excellence of their personnel. For the other organizations, a mix of low and high Power Distance is seen for both supervisors and staff.

As concerns the identification of power concepts, comparison of the IOs is presented in Table 10.3.

	The WTO	The UNCTAD	The ITC	The WHO
Type of Power	Hard and soft power	Hard and soft power	Hard and soft power	Hard and soft power
Power Distance	Low and high	High	High	Low and high
Identification of Power	Machiavellian teleological approach	Mostly Machiavellian teleological approach	Kantian deontological ethics	Machiavellian teleological approach
Power Need	Individual Recognition	Being able to utilize resources and information, setting and shaping an agenda, and a vision	Having network and knowledge, being more result oriented	Individual recognition

Table 10.3: The Comparison of the IOs' Power Understandings

10.5 Leadership

This research into leadership understanding leans heavily on Implicit Leadership Theory in which the individual's perception and belief of effective leadership gains importance. When we think of broad diversification of the workforce at IOs, the accumulation of individual opinions and their intersection provide an idea about common effective leadership traits at these institutions. To this effect, the explicated views of leadership qualities are mainly based on how participants have defined effective

leadership themselves, and from the researcher's observations. The common characteristics of effective leadership enumerated by the participants of all the organizations are as follows: having vision, being fair and accessible, being a good communicator, demonstrating respect towards others, and, being able to motivate in pursuit of necessary objectives. Surprisingly, although IOs have their nature rooted in multiculturalism, apart from the WHO participants, the others did not value demonstrating cultural sensitivity as an attribute of an effective leader. The supervisors and staff of the WHO have more field work than the staff of the other three organizations. In these field works, due to dealing with diversified nationalities, they may well understand the importance of cultural sensitivity. To this effect, the leaders of the WHO must have the capability of working effectively across cultures more than the other organizations' leaders.

Even though different types of leadership were identified by the participants, the charismatic/value-based type was the intersection point for all of them. This finding is also related to power perception of the participants. In order to accept a leader as a power figure, and be influenced by him/her, they desire to see divinely conferred talent, vision, emotional intelligence, trustworthiness and self-monitoring. As well, the only organization which encouraged transformational leadership was the ITC. This finding may be explained by the focal point of ITC's mission and goals. Since the ITC's main focus is on transforming and adapting the SMEs of developing countries into the global economy, hence, transformational leadership fits best for this context. The comparison between each IOs' leadership concepts is provided in Table 10.4.

	The WTO	The UNCTAD	The ITC	The WHO
Effective Leadership Characteristics	Being inspirational, persuasive, motivational, visionary, fair, trustworthy, knowledgeable, nice, a good example, having the ability to set directions,	Being respected, clear, approachable, charming, thoughtful, fair, discreet, succinct, results-based, team-oriented, reliable,	Being accessible, visionary, inspirational, able to manage at a macro-level, enhance skill sets of the staff, result-oriented, having technical capabilities, showing love,	Being visionary, non-threatening, fair and a role model, having the ability to motivate, sharing accolades, facilitating discussions, showing

	<p>pushing staff for an extra mile, having integrity, communicating effectively, sharing information with team members, being able to think strategically, driving the mission, taking responsibility no matter what the outcome, showing respect, finding a middle ground, and get consent of the staff.</p>	<p>honest, desirable to be followed and a role model, having organizational abilities and confidence delegating and using human capital, establishing a balance between greater and collective good, being aware of followers' needs; understanding resource issues, constraints, weakness and strengths of the staff.</p>	<p>care, honesty, fairness, justice, ensuring team spirit, and not abusing power, making people listen and work together, being an example, transforming the organization, communicating efficiently, obtaining desired resources, and having certain personal qualities and charisma.</p>	<p>respect, providing transparency, demonstrating cultural sensitivity.</p>
Leadership Type	Charismatic/ value based and participative	Charismatic/ value based and Team Oriented	Charismatic/ value based, Transformational, Team Oriented, Human Oriented and Participative	Charismatic/ value based

Table 10.4: Comparison of the IOs' Leadership Understandings

10.6 Motivation

When we look at the evolution of motivation in chronological order, it is seen that content, process and mix theories, dominated the history of work motivation. However, with the progress of multinational workforces, cross-cultural motivational research is beginning to gain importance in the existing literature. As part of the historical portion of motivational inquiries, one of the fundamental aims of this research is to clarify the impact of culture on staff motivation at IOs. To this effect, the participants evaluated the impact of multicultural work environment on staff motivation. Only two WTO staff inferred that they had difficulty adapting to the work culture, one UNCTAD supervisor stated the impact of national background on the perception of promotion and how this view may lead to a demoralization effect amongst some nationalities. The other forty-one participants posited that national background did not have an impact on staff motivation in the context of IOs. In lieu of nationality, they put emphasis on the differences of personality, and the leaders. While investigating culture's impact on motivation, this result underscored the indispensable importance of leadership in staff motivation.

Common motivating factors for all participants were: being appreciated through explicitly highlighting their achievements, being given responsibility and autonomy, and, having promotional opportunities. These factors can be evaluated under the category of non-monetary motivational tools. Herein, there is an emphasis on individual progress. Except for participants of the WHO, none others highlighted PSM. They saw motivation as an individual entity which made them internally satisfied. This result seems pretty interesting, because without having PSM, the researcher believes that intrinsic motivation cannot be perpetuated for a long time at IOs. As a consequence, we can see more unmotivated people at IOs. On the other hand, the common demotivating factors were as follows: receiving negative feedback and boring duties, lack of communication, limited promotion opportunities, and being unrecognized. These findings are also consistent with the above mentioned points concerning encouragement of individual motivation at the organization.

According to participant views, the most effective common motivational tools for IO staff fall under the two categories of monetary and non-monetary. However, they generally prefer non-monetary incentives, such as, recognition of achievements, emphasis on PSM (WHO), career development programs, greater challenges, higher

responsibilities, and reducing bureaucracy. On the other hand, for a common monetary motivational tool, all organization participants chose, increasing the opportunities for permanent contracts. This result is also related to the organizational culture of IOs. There are a few monetary incentives in these organizations and their organizational culture does not support expansion of these materialistic motivational tools.

Furthermore, McClelland motivational needs of organizations are evaluated in the following part as well. However, in order to provide a more holistic understanding of power theory, power need has been evaluated in the power section. Affiliation need is evaluated from five different aspects: a. dealing with unexpected events, b. encouraging good human nature, c. creating team spirit, d. encouraging a sense of belonging, and, e. having out of workplace relations. The supervisors showed high affiliation need tendencies, with the exception of having out of work relations. Only three WTO supervisors have high affiliation need, while the same number at the ITC have a midlevel affiliation need. Apart from them, the others show low affiliation need towards meeting out of work with their staff. There is a remarkable separation between work and personal actions among supervisors. This is also consistent with supervisors' preference of high power distance. In addition, the relationship between affiliation need and leadership is somewhat vague, because while staff defined effective leadership characteristics, they did not enumerate being friends or establishing close relationships with their supervisors. Per contra, the staff of the WTO and WHO – with the exception of one from the WTO and three from the WHO – demonstrate low affiliation need. Therein, one finds a big divergence in the findings vis-à-vis the supervisors and staff of these two organizations. Into the bargain, another remarkable discovery belongs to the participants of the UNCTAD. Due to the currently limited communication and relationship problems of the organization, they may show mainly high affiliation need characteristics.

Achievement need is low in both supervisors and staff of the WTO. This result may stem from two main causes: first is related to one of the basic underlying assumptions: “there is not much room for being creative”, and second is the limited promotion opportunities at the organization. Accordingly, they may show low achievement need. Oppositely, there is a remarkable contradiction amongst the participants of the other organizations: while all the supervisors have high achievement need, per contra, except for one staff at the WHO, all the others have low achievement need. When looking at the profiles of the supervisors, they hold professional status with

permanent contracts, while inversely, most of the staff have temporary positions and contracts, thereby, the supervisors may be more determined to work hard, and as a result, this sharp differentiation could emerge between participants. Their responses demonstrate that achievement motive is related to effective leadership. High achievement motivation attributes such as obtaining desired resources, the ability to set directions, being result-oriented, and driving the mission are enumerated by staff as main characteristics of effective leaders.

Comparison for the IOs' motivation approaches is shown in Table 10.5.

	The WTO	The UNCTAD	The ITC	The WHO
Motivating Factors	Being appreciated and explicitly highlighting achievement of the staff, permitting autonomy, setting shorter timeframes and achievable goals, being nice, taking responsibility of staff's failures, and examining new topics.	Encouraging people to talk, building links with universities and other research centres, prioritizing staff promotions, providing opportunities for field work and trips abroad, listening to all views, allowing for more responsibility and autonomy, and positive feedback.	Giving deadlines, monitoring, doing work allocation according to specific talents and attitudes, showing sensitivity to staff's individual problems, providing possibility of expression, recognizing achievements, ensuring perspective of career evolution, sharing information, protecting staff's rights, and taking responsibilities of failures.	Giving positive feedback and responsibility, organizing routine drinks, retreats and field work abroad, repeating PSM, recognition through helping staff promotion, giving credit publicly, showing concern, and listening to the staff.

De-motivating Factors	Unfairness, unrewarded work, disregarding achievements, wrong promotion policy, lack of communication, disseminating false hopes.	Lack of communication, limited vacant posts, restriction of flexible work hours, going unrecognized, assigning more work than capacity, having boring requests, and giving negative feedback.	Unexplained tasks, taking all the credits oneself, limited promotion opportunities, impeding opinions, giving boring tasks	Giving negative feedback, especially publicly, even with non-verbal communication, not saying a simple thanks, open conflict environment, a demanding boss, imposing drudgeries, and having an unmotivated supervisor.
The most effective motivational tools	Monetary tools: Subsidies for rent, higher salaries, and performance bonuses. Non-monetary tools: public recognitions of achievements, providing regular motivation through provision of additional responsibilities and titles,	Monetary tools: Augmenting the budget of the organization and long term contracts. Non-monetary tools: lessening bureaucracy, setting more challenges and higher responsibilities, letting opportunities	Monetary tools: Long term contracts. Non-monetary tools: Encouraging the idea of working for a common good, giving trainings, allocating responsibility, minimum interference in staff's duties, opening new projects, respecting	Monetary tools: A well-paid salary and benefits, such as, educational grants for their children, home leave, and permanent contracts. Non-monetary tools: having appraisal systems, leader's clear guiding, acknowledgement, more promotion options, having human resource

	<p>ensuring career development, arranging opportunities for organizational representation in different parts of the world, emphasizing PSM, providing horizontal changes in staff positions.</p>	<p>out in order to see the result of public service works, increasing promotion options, recognizing achievements, matching staff abilities with the proper jobs, performing team building exercises, giving positive feedback and a feeling of involvement, defining a clear vision, and establishing communication</p>	<p>individuals' plans, creating an environment that supports equal voice, strengthening recognition of the organization, delegation, showing care and trust, good leadership and more promotion opportunities, a work and life balance, and acknowledgement with good words.</p>	<p>staff coming from the field, building team spirit, sharing a vision, allowing everybody's contribution, developing individualized motivation systems, recognizing individually, attending international conferences, travel opportunities, getting more responsibility, hiring more motivated persons, facing new challenges, establishing a learning environment, reducing bureaucracy, providing more flexibility, encouraging new ideas, establishing an efficient performance system, fairness in</p>
--	--	--	--	--

				all organizational decisions, showing respect, increasing awareness of the staff's PSM.
Affiliation	Low and High	Low and High	Low and High	Low and High
Achievement	Low	Low and High	Low and High	Low and High

Table 10.5: Comparison of the IOs' Motivation Approaches

10.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, gathered data was analysed by three methods, involving four IOs, and the participation of forty-four participants, and interpreted subsequently. As critical ethnographic research, ECA provided a better understanding of the analysis and interpretation process. The findings were investigated separately, utilizing the ground basic structure of grand theories, and then four organizations were compared with each other through the lens of the researcher's critical ethnography. This process led to the result of the establishment of a theoretical framework which can clarify the main dynamics of staff motivation in the context of IOs.

Schein's cultural layers sketched a portrait of IOs' culture. Following this, the GLOBE study highlighted participants' national cultural characteristics. However, during the analysis of the findings, it was realized that there was a Marxist dialectic interaction between these two types of culture. National Culture, having been transfigured through Organizational Culture's influence, has developed what can be termed International Culture. This latter phenomenon has emerged from the clash of the former two social domains and can be defined as a metamorphosed pattern of values, beliefs, assumptions, social ideas, language, symbols, rituals and working customs formed by the fusion of national cultures and organizational culture in international settings.

Through the use of the ILT, the definition of an effective leader found more significance. The participants described the main characteristics of an effective leader as: being visionary, fair, accessible, and a good communicator; showing respect towards others; and, being able to motivate staff towards the achievement of an objective. These

attributes lead to the finding of a charismatic/value based leader as the most preferred leadership type by participants.

Moreover, power was also included in this chapter. For the reason that according to the findings, power concept holds a central place for the attraction of culture, leadership, and motivation concepts, with each other, and also on how it separately impacts on each model. From the gathered participant data, it was recognised that there are two types of power, as hard and soft. As well, IOs have become an important component of international relations. This affects the view of different power types. In addition, with the exception of the ITC staff and one UNCTAD staff who favoured the Kantian deontological ethics approach, the other IOs' staff supported the Machiavellian teleological approach, and his concept of virtù, while discussing power concepts. According to the latter and larger group, in order to gain and hold power for the 'good' of the state, a leader can disregard some universal ethical rules for periods of time. Herein, an elitist approach emerges which sees itself as beyond the "public" and justifies its actions as for the greater good.

In addition to analysing the interaction of motivation with other grand theories, motivation was separately scrutinized with ground basis structure of McClelland needs of motivation. According to the findings, the supervisors demonstrated high affiliation need tendencies, with the exception of having out of work relations. Contrariwise, the staff – with the exception of one from the WTO, three from the WHO and five from the UNCTAD – showed low affiliation need. Achievement need is low in both supervisors and staff of the WTO. Per contra, there is a remarkable contradiction amongst the participants of the other organizations: while all the supervisors have high achievement need, on the other hand, except for one staff at the WHO, all the others have low achievement need. Furthermore, the power need of the WTO and WHO participants has developed on the axis of individual recognition. On the other hand, the power need of the UNCTAD and ITC members has progressed at the intersection of organizational and individual attainment.

CHAPTER 11

THEORATICAL FRAME WORK and PRACTICAL RECOMMENDATIONS

11.1 Introduction

This study identifies the main dynamics of multicultural workforce motivation in the context of IOs. The grand theories of motivation, culture, leadership, and power share mutual and continuing interactions in staff motivation. Firstly, the theoretical framework will emerge from the synthesis of researcher interpretation, collation, and theory with practice in this chapter.

While this research involves abstract theories, it also aims to connect abstract ideas with concrete or empirical usages. This chapter will separately provide some useful recommendations for officials and supervisors of each organization, and thus, make a practical contribution to the knowledge of everyday public management.

11.2 Theoretical Framework

During the process of findings, analyses and interpretations of gathered data, it was realized that “power” is the basic foundation and driving force of all three grand theories. As power types go, these main categories emerged: soft and hard power. Typically, these expressions are used to explain power terms in international relations. Nonetheless, IOs are an important component of international relations. Thus, it is inevitable to see the impact of international relations on IOs. Nye (2009: 63) defined hard power as “coercive power wielded through inducements or threats”. In the context of IOs, it is pretty difficult to use hard power concept, because, as some of the participants inferred, a tangible carrot and stick approach is rather difficult to employ in this environment, since due to limited authority over dismissal and punishment vis-à-vis promotion and financial incentive, such tools are generally not at disposal. Hence, hard power is represented by holding a higher position in the hierarchy. On the other hand, according to Wilson (2008, p. 114), “soft power is the capacity to persuade others to do what one wants”. Soft power in the context of IOs is based on usage of intangible methods, such as, utilizing knowledge, encouraging individual recognition, being able to develop resources and information, reaching desired goals, setting and shaping an agenda, defining rules, developing a vision of final aims, and a subtle showing of respect.

Herein, the results of Foucault and Lukes' power understandings are presented in soft power preferences of participants, such as, decision-making, shaping agendas and utilizing knowledge. As explained above, soft power is thereby more practical than hard power in the context of IOs. However, in order to provide a better understanding, especially for necessary motivational tools for staff, both the resources of soft and hard power must be identified by researchers.

In addition, IOs' philosophical conception was influenced by Kantian notion of a civil society and his theory of perpetual peace. Kant also supported these theories with his deontological ethics concept. Nevertheless, interestingly, except for the ITC participants, Machiavellian teleological approach is common in the power notion of other members. In place of virtue, Machiavelli preferred to follow the concept of *virtù*, whereby to gain power for the good of the state, a leader can disregard some ethical universal rules for a while. Most participants do not have any objections to this understanding.

There is an interaction between leadership and power theories. IOs utilize status perquisites as the main provider of their power concept. In order to gain these benefits, the main condition is to hold a managerial position. The charismatic value-based leadership type is the interface for all the participants while describing their view of effective leadership. In this type of leadership, having knowledge is one of the fundamental factors for gaining and holding on to power. The main difference between the types of leadership – supervisor versus leader and effective leader – stems from how they gain and maintain power in the organization. While supervisors are acquiring and maintaining power through law, regulations, or their status, leaders and effective leaders gain it mainly through their character. As it is indicated in ILT, the principal difference between leadership and effective leadership stems from the quantity of positive leadership features.

Likewise, another interaction is between culture and power theories. Viewed from their own cultural perspective, some staff see more money or a bigger office as a symbol of power. Moreover, according to the results of the observations, it is deduced that having materialistic objects, such as, one's own printer, bureau, or furniture, symbolizes power status as regards the organizational culture of IOs. Hence, power is interrelated with both national and organizational culture theories. Even more, holding power, especially status or responsibility, are important elements of motivation. The

participants saw these elements as vital foundations for being recognized, and recognition is one of the most important elements of individual motivation of staff. To these effects, power is at the centre of the three grand theories regarding interaction.

Furthermore, leadership behaviour has a direct impact on motivation theory. Correspondingly, some of the participants infer that it is the most important factor vis-à-vis their motivation. Without the existence of good or effective leadership, it is rather difficult to mention motivation strategies, as leaders are the main implementers of these policies. As Schein (2004) states, leadership is one of the original sources of organizational culture, because, during the process of culture formation, primarily, leaders impose their own values and beliefs. After these values are accepted and embraced by group members, they become the whole groups' values and beliefs. Yet after a while, the latter also begins to affect leadership concept, and in the process of leader selection, these values become the most important selection criteria. In addition, organizational culture is not the only phenomenon that impacts leadership, but national culture also influences the form and development of leaders' behaviour. In this research, the impact of another cultural element, *international culture*, was also exposed. As some of the participants expressed, after getting used to working in a multicultural environment, leadership attitudes are also influenced through this process.

The concept of culture has been investigated in this research under two main categories, as organizational and national culture. Organizational culture, with its components of organizational climate, structure, working principles, rituals, symbols, and language, directly influences motivation of the workforce in the context of IOs. Per contra, it was realized in the findings that "motivation concept is related to individual characteristics rather than nationalities". This is one of the common basic underlying assumptions for all the organizations. However, national culture has an undeniable impact on forming the character and attitudes of leaders and their staff. Hence, in order to understand staff's motivation, it is necessary to analyse national culture as well.

In addition, as some of the participants expressed, national culture is metamorphosed after interacting with organizational culture of IOs and other members of variant nations. There is a Marxist dialectical relation between national culture and organizational culture, which leads a struggle of two opposites. The unity of two contradictions causes a new entity that shows the historical process of how the idea of

culture has progressed and changed dialectically. For example, in lieu of using their own mother tongue, most use English in their daily discussions and utilize French as a salutation language at work. Remarkably, even though some of the staff originate from male dominated societies and encourage male superiority in their own countries, in this context they support gender egalitarianism. Moreover, while some staff and supervisors maintain, as a valid leadership characteristic, that of authoritarian leadership, in their home countries, here, they encourage charismatic/value based leadership type. Consequently, the findings indicate that international culture is a metamorphosed pattern of values, beliefs, assumptions, social ideas, language, symbols, rituals and working customs formed by the fusion of national cultures and organizational culture in international settings.

Motivation concept has an ongoing interaction with leadership, culture, and power concepts. In addition to these relations, it has its own dynamics. The findings reveal that there are three main components of motivation in the context of IOs, as individual, group and organizational. Firstly, while the staff were elaborating the difficulties of motivation as regards different nationalities, with consensus, they expressed a basic underlying assumption that, *“motivation concept is related to individual characteristics rather than nationalities”*. Specifically, non-monetary motivational tools, such as, establishing communication between supervisors and staff, giving clearly structured and defined objectives to the workforce, recognizing individual achievements, performing horizontal changes in staff positions, giving more power and responsibility to the staff, ensuring particular titles, and paying attention to staff’s needs by the organization, motivate the workforce individually. To these effects, individual understanding of motivation gains importance while identifying the research topic.

As well, while the participants were expressing their opinions about team spirit and motivational tools, they put an emphasis on the impact of group dynamics on staff’s motivation. Even though not as strong as individual motivation, group motivation also affects motivation concept, especially through showing fairness while distributing power, building a feeling of being included in the team, and establishing team spirit among team members.

The final component of motivation concept is organizational motivation. This term is related more to a sense of belonging and in-group collectivism. When we look at

the profiles of some of the supervisors and staff, it is easily seen that they have excellent educational and work backgrounds. Even though they do not get astronomical salaries from IOs, they show a desire to serve for the common good. If we define these personnel's life motivation through Maslow's hierarchy of needs, we can see them beyond self-actualization and close to transcendence level¹²⁴, which aims to help others actualize their potential. They want to serve all their mental forte for a greater good. Consequently, in addition to individual and group motivation, organizational motivation is also gaining importance for understanding a holistic perspective of motivation concept. In order to motivate staff in IOs, supervisors must take into consideration these different types of motivation. The interaction of the theories is shown in Figure 11.1.

¹²⁴ There is no consensus among academics about accepting this extended version of Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

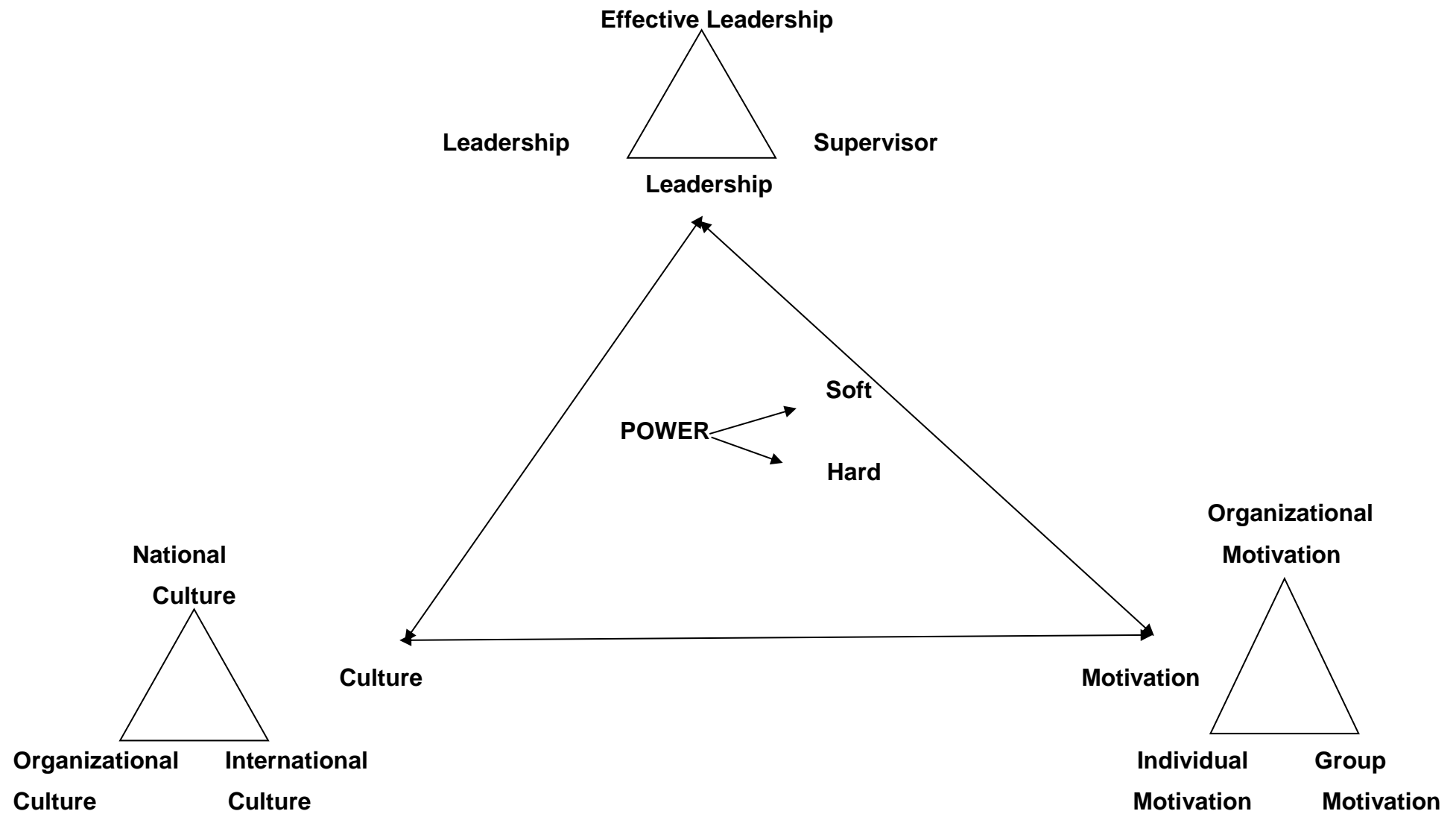


Figure 11.1: The Flow Diagram of the Theoretical Framework

11.3 Practical Recommendations

11.3.1 For the WTO Officials and Supervisors

The sensitivity of officials regarding social responsibility, such as, providing facilities for the disabled, a library, a meditation room, a health care service, maintaining green foliage, and presentation of artworks, is well reflected in the observations of the staff; they give the impression of being rather happy to be part of a pleasant environment. On the other hand, one of the basic underlying assumptions for the staff is that, “there was not much room for being creative”. In order to provide a more creative environment, after defining the main tasks, details of a given work should be determined by the staff and more initiative should be encouraged by officials and supervisors.

When we look at staff profiles, it can be seen that they have graduated from prestigious universities and have had remarkable careers and work experience, in either the private or public sectors. For these types of people, the *power need* is satisfied in the axis of recognition over having a bigger office or a private printer. Therefore, they view promotion as an individual recognition of their achievements by their superiors, and in so doing, winning the competition over other colleagues. Hence, the organization should establish career development programmes, and provide more promotional opportunities.

In order to demonstrate a more effective leadership style at the organization, the supervisors should be inspirational, persuasive, visionary, fair, trustworthy, knowledgeable, pleasant, and set a good example. They must also have the ability to provide direction, demonstrate integrity, push staff for the extra mile, communicate effectively, share information with team members, be able to think strategically, drive the mission, take responsibility no matter what the outcome, show respect, find a middle ground in discussions, and get the consent of their workforce.

While motivating staff, in lieu of focusing on disparate national cultures, international cultural entities should be understood by focusing on values, beliefs, assumptions, rituals, and symbols. Likewise, in order to provide better motivation, supervisors should focus on non-monetary tools, such as, rendering appreciation through explicitly highlighting achievements, imparting responsibility and autonomy, emphasising PSM, setting greater challenges, according greater responsibilities, and reducing

bureaucracy. In addition, they should abstain from dispensing negative feedback and boring duties, accommodating a lack of communication, limiting promotion opportunities, and ignoring the achievements and existence of the staff.

11.3.2 For the UNCTAD Officials and Supervisors

Participants emphasised the negative role played by dull bureaucracies, especially when attempting change and developing the work atmosphere. In order to reduce this effect, officials should establish a more flexible reporting system, delegate authority, reduce hierarchical standings, and encourage horizontal interaction rather than vertical hierarchy. Similarly, supervisors should share more information with their staff and trust responsibilities to them. In addition, the office atmosphere should be made more lively.

There is an obvious communication problem in the organization. In lieu of email and phone, more face-to-face contact should be established between supervisors and staff. In addition, social activities, at work and out of work, should be organized, and an open-door policy be put into practice. On the other hand, newcomers are not welcomed easily by senior staff members, hence, an orientation programme should be established for newcomers where they should also be introduced to senior staff members.

One of the basic underlying assumption in the organization is that: "There are two types of staff: professionals and others". This is the biggest obstacle as regarding staff motivation, and the main reason for losing qualified workers. In order to remove it, firstly, officials should provide more long-term contract opportunities. In addition, staff opinions should be frequently and considered in the decision-making processes. Some professional privileges, such as, educational grants, early retirement opportunities, longer holidays, and training, should be provided to other staff as well.

In lieu of pursuing autocratic leadership behaviours, such as, placing communication barriers between themselves and their staff, not sharing power or authority, and discouraging staff participation in decision-making processes, supervisors and officials should show charismatic/value-based and team-oriented leadership styles. Some of the main characteristics of these leadership styles, such as, establishing a vision which can be followed by participants, taking staff opinion into consideration in the

decision making process, building team spirit, giving out more authority and responsibility to staff, are appropriate and advantageous here.

There is a motivation problem, which may be the source of other problems in the organization. Thus, officials should urgently focus on this issue. As a starting point, participants do not believe that nationality makes an impact on their motivation levels. Motivational expectations develop as non-monetary motivational tools, such as, limiting bureaucracy, setting more challenges, having higher responsibilities, providing opportunities, increasing promotion options, recognizing achievements, matching staff abilities with appropriate jobs, team building exercises, providing positive feedback and a feeling of involvement, defining a clear vision, and establishing communication. Alternatively, officials and supervisors should avoid limiting vacant posts, restricting flexible work hours, neglecting staff, assigning more work than capacity, issuing boring orders and negative feedback, and limiting communication channels.

11.3.3 For the ITC Officials and Supervisors

The organization has an open-door policy; this policy is well-reflected in the working habits of participants through the provision of a relaxed interactive environment and assistance in the establishment of positive group dynamics. However, some of the supervisors and staff unintentionally have the tendency to impose on this by dominating discussions and imposing their own beliefs and values on others. Thereby, officials and supervisors should be more careful when conducting group discussions, and pay attention to all voices and opinions. Additionally, informal-apparel-day implementation is not only providing a relaxed work environment, but it is also displaying organizational awareness towards individual existence. Hence, officials should maintain its implementation.

An understanding of hard power is common among participants, such as, valuing hierarchy, being able to use financial resources, authorizing decisions, and controlling others. This understanding also led to *high power distance*. In order to reduce this distance, officials and supervisors should follow a more participatory approach in the process of decision-making.

Moreover, according to the participants, officials should provide long-term contracts. Apart from this, their motivational expectations are about non-monetary tools. Officials and supervisors should encourage the idea of working for the common good, providing training, allocating responsibility, minimizing interference in staff duties, starting new projects, showing respect for individuals' plans, creating an environment that provides an equal voice for all, strengthening recognition of the organization, delegating, demonstrating care and trust, providing good leadership, providing more promotional opportunities, allowing for work and life balance, and acknowledging good deeds with good words. Contrariwise, they should not set unexplained tasks, take all the credit for themselves, restrict promotion opportunities, impede opinions, give boring tasks, and present false hope.

11.3.4 For the WHO Officials and Supervisors

The WHO successfully reflects its global health care mission onto the organization. This approach is rather effective at reminding staff members of the existential reasons of the organization. What is more, staff also feel valuable when seeing this kind of staff-centric implementation. However, during meetings with externals, more seating spaces should be provided for staff in order to make them feel included, and not excluded, by officials.

There is an obvious communication problem at the organization. The staff immured themselves within invisible walls and hindered the flow of verbal communication. In order to improve communication, supervisors should arrange face-to face meetings more often, administer clear tasks, avoid personalizing work problems, demonstrate more empathy, and be accessible. In addition, while the participants defined effective leadership, they placed special importance on being a role model. Officials and supervisors should be aware of this expectation and pay more attention to their behaviours.

Furthermore, in order to increase motivation at the organization, officials and supervisor should establish a well-designed appraisal systems, display clear leadership guidance, acknowledge followers, provide more promotion options, ascertain that human resource staff come from the field, build team spirit, share a vision, allow for everybody's contribution, develop individualized motivation systems, recognize individuality, permit

attendance at international conferences, afford travel opportunities, sanction more responsibility for staff, hire more motivated workers, face new challenges, establish a learning environment, reduce bureaucracy, provide more flexibility, encourage new ideas, establish an efficient performance system, make certain of fairness in all organizational decisions, show respect, and increase awareness of staff PSM. In contrast, they should avoid giving negative feedback, especially publicly, and not say a simple thanks for achievements, establish open conflict environment at the workplace, demand consistency, impose drudgeries, and ignore staff motivation levels.

11.4 Conclusion

The analysis and interpretation of the findings assisted in reaching the research objectives and responding to the research questions. According to the findings, a theoretical framework to assist with the practice of staff motivation has been developed and conclusions outlined. For the first time in existing literature, this framework has provided an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon of staff motivation in the context of IOs. In addition, one of the main expectations from a doctorate is providing an original contribution for practice. This research fulfils this expectation through developing some practical recommendations for each of the separate international organizations.

CHAPTER 12

GENERAL CONCLUSION

12.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with an overview of the research which discusses how the thesis has been conducted. The main expectation from a doctoral research is for it to make an original contribution to the existing literature and expand the knowledge basis of the topic at hand. How this expectation has been fulfilled shall be presently explained. In addition, every research has some limitations that can hinder the progress of knowledge production. Limitations faced during this investigation will also be discussed in this chapter.

In social research, the concept of reflexivity had begun to gain importance by the late 1980s (Maton, 2003). Bourdieu evaluates the concept of reflexivity from the perspective of sociology (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992) and refers to reflexivity as a condition of any critical theory that aims to tackle dualistic features of modern social science (Calhoun et al., 1993). As a part of a social inquiry, this chapter will discuss self-reflection through firstly defining reflexivity and then making a critical review of the analysis. Every research has a terminus but its end may become an opening for another query. In order to provide the impetus for the movement of this knowledge cycle, the final section will make a few recommendations to promote further studies.

12.2 Overview of the Research

This thesis explored the impact of culture, leadership, and power, on staff motivation in the context of IOs. Hence, it did not view motivation theory as an isolated entity but also focused on organizational and national culture, and leadership and power theories, through a qualitative research approach. Ontologically, reality was shaped by economic, social, political, cultural, and historical developments. From an epistemological perspective, it was accepted that historical values influenced the research project and the researcher. Therefore, subjectivity and a need for dialogue between the researcher and research subject led to utilizing of a critical theory as a paradigm of inquiry. This study relied on a phenomenological perspective which brought about an in-depth understanding of the data.

In addition, phenomenology provided a holistic understanding of the literature review which was divided into two main categories, as theoretical and research topic. While chronological developments of grand theories were being investigated in the theory literature review, the research topic's literature review focused on historical/social changes and their influences on the research topic. It was realized that there were a few studies in the existing literature about this project. What is more, the literature review chapter demonstrated the importance of the current inquiry and necessity of developing a specific theoretical framework regarding the interaction of culture, leadership, power and motivation in the context of IOs.

After investigating grand theories, the meso theories which formed the theoretical framework of the research were chosen. These include, the McClelland motivational theory, the GLOBE study, ILT, and Schein's culture and leadership theory. These theories bridged theory and practice by being embedded into questions found in the empirical section. This link provided a better understanding of the findings, analysis, and interpretation sections of the research, and furthermore, it demonstrated how theoretical framework reflected into real life situations.

The concern for understanding the cultural aspect led to the result of utilizing critical ethnography methodology. The chosen methodology also reflected on the process of selection of research methods. As a part of ethnographic methodology, semi-structured interviews, focus groups, and observations were utilized in the research. In addition, to complement each other and provide methodological triangulation, these methods brought depth and diverse perspectives to the research process and helped in understanding cultural settings of IOs.

After gathering data from the forty-four participants of the WTO, the UNCTAD, the ITC, and the WHO, through utilizing quota sampling techniques in interviews and focus groups, and three days of observations for each organization, the data was analysed by using ethnographic data content analysis. The findings of the research afforded an opportunity to establish a theoretical framework which demonstrated how concepts related to staff motivation were divided into their subcomponents and how they interacted with each other. For the first time in the existing literature, this framework demonstrated which concepts interact to influence motivation of IO staff.

Through applying Schein's cultural levels, the research identified organizational culture of subject areas. Indeed, during the analysis, it was recognised that there is a Marxist dialectic relation between national and organizational culture. The struggle and unity of two opposites revealed another facet of culture vis-à-vis multicultural workforces in the context of IOs, termed international culture. This research developed a definition of international culture as a metamorphosed pattern of values, beliefs, assumptions, social ideas, language, symbols, rituals and working customs formed by the fusion of national cultures and organizational culture in international settings.

In addition to becoming key actors in international relations, IOs are influencing the power relations of nations, especially as regards decision-making mechanisms. This influence is also reflected in their internal power definitions of hard and soft power. According to findings, it was realized that soft power is thereby more practical than hard power in the context of IOs. Furthermore, another surprising result is related to power understanding of participants. Although the establishment of IOs was influenced by key points related to Kantian deontological ethics, except for the ITC staff and one UNCTAD staff, all other staff supported the Machiavellian teleological approach. They posit that, in order to gain power for the sake a greater good, virtue can be ignored for a while. This understanding is consistent with Machiavellian virtù concept as well.

As one of the meso theories in the research, ILT focuses on cognitive understanding that is based on traits and behaviours of a leader. In this context, defining an effective leader by his followers, gains importance. As stated by the participants, the main characteristics of an effective leader are: vision, fairness and access, communication aptitude, respectfulness, and being motivational in reaching objectives. The choice of these traits demonstrates that the preferred leadership type at play in these institutions is the charismatic/value based style.

What is more, regarding motivation concept, it was assumed that nationality does not make an impact on staff motivation. In lieu of nationality, as main influencers of staff's motivation levels, supervisors must consider individual, group, and organizational aspects which were explored in the research. Individual motivation is influenced by promotion opportunities and raises in salary; more power and responsibility to staff; usage of managerial titles; appreciation and recognition to staff's contribution; encouragement of staff's career development; avoidance of demotivating behaviours,

such as not showing gratitude, ignoring staff's efforts and making openly negative feedback in front of other staff; providing opportunity for flexible time usage, such as special leaves and supplementary holidays; being noticed by their supervisors (through acknowledgement with good words), and ensuring opportunities to face new challenges. On the other hand, group motivation is triggered by: showing fairness while distributing power; establishing communication between supervisor and staff and amongst team members; giving clearly structured and defined objectives to the workforce; establishing a feeling of being included amongst the team; and having a nice boss. Finally, organizational motivation is built by: paying attention to staff's needs by the organization; performing realistic and flexible job-matching; making horizontal changes in staff positions; increasing staff's stability through long term contracts (job security); establishing a learning environment; reducing bureaucracy; encouraging new ideas; establishing an efficient performance system; showing fairness in all organizational decisions; and increasing awareness of the staff's PSM.

Subsequently, all the research questions were adopted, and the research objectives achieved, through developing a motivational theoretical framework which provided a specific understanding as regards staff motivation in the context of IOs.

12.3 Contribution to Knowledge

This thesis makes an original contribution to knowledge, from these three main perspectives: methodological, theoretical and practical.

Regarding a methodological contribution, three ethnography methods, interviews, focus groups, and non-participant observations, were applied in the context of IOs. In addition, the use of three methods triangulated the data, and this combination brought different perspectives which helped enrich the process of knowledge production.

Theoretical contributions are made through synthesis of motivation, culture, leadership, and power theories. Firstly, in order to understand the organizational culture of the institutions covered in this study, levels of Schein's organizational culture model were for the first time applied in the context of IOs. One of the main characteristics of an IO work environment is multiculturalism. To be able to evaluate an individual's national cultural attributes, the cultural dimensions of the GLOBE study were applied to IO

personnel. With regard to culture, a final contribution has been in terms of *international culture*. It was realized that due to a Marxist dialectic interaction of opposites, as organizational culture and national culture, a new entity has emerged, both similar and different than its constituents. The unity of opposites is based on internal contradictions that are inherent in dialectical change. National culture arrived first on the scene, due to the existence of the nation state, but was followed by the emergence of organizational culture with the rise in organizational studies of the 1960's/70's. When national culture combines with organizational culture, the internal struggle can be identified as the 'living abroad' factor. Without it, there are no internal contradictions. This factor is the reason that dialectical change can be found in this research. The unity of national and organizational cultures, due to the internal contradiction of living abroad, leads to qualitative transformation, or change, in the form of international culture. A new entity, which shows the historical process of how the idea of culture has progressed and changed dialectically. Consequently, this research contributes to the field of study by noting international culture's existence and observing some of its main characteristics, such as, language, symbols, rituals, and work features. For example, while English is used as the main language, French is preferred for salutation purposes while at work. Even though gender egalitarianism is not supported by some staff in their countries of origin, they encourage it in this context. While some participants encourage authoritarian leadership types in their own home countries, here, they value charismatic/value based leadership types. Finally, artworks are accepted as the main symbols which encourage basic values of an entity, and taking coffee breaks and discussing work issues, especially during the morning periods, are accepted as chief rituals in this new cultural paradigm.

Secondly, regarding leadership concept, while investigating multicultural workforce motivation of IOs, a combination of the GLOBE study, the ILT, and Schein's leadership approaches, was implemented for the first time and concurrently vis-à-vis this topic.

Thirdly, as concerns the power issue, it was realized that there are two types of power (soft and hard) which form the dynamics of authority in the working environment of IOs. What is more, even though IOs were established with the Kantian notion of deontological ethics as their base, surprisingly and per contra, Machiavellian teleological approach is more dominant among the power notions of the staff.

Fourthly, the biggest contribution to knowledge regards motivation concept. The findings of the research establish a motivational theoretical framework for the first time in the existing literature, in order to make the interactions of related concepts of IO staff's motivation more intelligible, and assist with the practice of workforce management in the context of international organizations.

Regarding practical contributions, in addition to reflections of the theoretical framework to practice, in order to increase staff motivation, the research makes some important recommendations for both supervisors and officials of IOs.

12.4 Limitations

The main limitations of the research are enumerated under five categories: a. The research design, b. The researcher, c. Cultural framework, d. Security concerns, and, e. Resources.

The researcher believes that to be able to understand motivation and its relationship with other concepts such as leadership and culture, it is necessary to bring different perspectives to the research process and make profound interpretations. Therefore, he chose to apply a qualitative research design. Even though this design enriches the research process and provides an in-depth understanding of the research topic, it places an important limitation, that of generalization of findings. Instead of generalization, transferability criterion was utilized in the research.

This research was conducted at four IOs based in Geneva, Switzerland. The researcher moved to Geneva for this purpose, hence he did not have many acquaintances locally. As a foreigner, he tried to receive research grants from IOs, as much as possible. Especially, his limited network put a limitation on finding effective internal contacts inside organizations. However, at the end, he did receive research grants from four IOs, yet if he had a larger network and wider circle of acquaintances, he could have been able to widen his reach.

While choosing research participants, as one of the meso theories in the research, GLOBE study's cultural cluster, which is composed of ten main categories, was implemented. This sensitivity to cultural representation brought a limitation to the participant selection process. Although there were some voluntary participants with the same nationality, in order to avoid domination by some national identities, they were not included in the research process. As much as possible, representation of all clusters was ensured.

Before performing the observation method, some organizations exhibited security concerns regarding the scope and time of the process. This concern reflected onto the research process in the form of limitations vis-à-vis observation areas and duration of observations at hand. In order to be able to obtain research grants, the researcher limited the observation areas in a way that would not harm the goal of research objectives, and also set the duration as three working days. Moreover, once again for security concerns, the researcher was not given access to observe some of the team meetings.

The final limitation is related to use of such resources as money and time. Firstly, the researcher did not have a financial budget for offering incentives to others to cooperate in the research process, hence, he faced some limitations to encourage participation of supervisors and staff. Except for participants' desire to be a part of a scientific exploration, he could not provide any financial enticements to make the participation more attractive. Furthermore, even though more supervisors and staff had consented to be part of the research, due to their limited spare time, they were not able to take part in the study either.

12.5 Self-reflection (Reflexivity)

The definition of reflexivity goes back to early 1930s. George Herbert Mead offered one of the best known and popular definitions of reflexivity in 1934:

“It is by means of reflexiveness—the turning-back of the experience of the individual upon himself—that the whole social process is thus brought into the experiences of the individuals involved in it; it is by such means, which enable the individual to take the attitude of the other toward himself, that the individual is consciously to adjust himself to that process, and to modify the resultant of that process in any given social act in terms of his adjustment to it. Reflexiveness, then, is the essential condition, within the social process, for the development of mind” (Strauss, 1956: 211).

Alvesson and Skoldberg (2009) define two fundamental characteristics in reflective research, as careful interpretation and reflection. Firstly, all references to empirical data stems from interpretation. Secondly, reflection considers interpretation through researcher’s character, whole relevant research society, language, and culture. Reflection can be defined as “interpretation of interpretation” (Ibid: 9). Howell (2013) makes a similar definition of reflexivity: *“Constructed constructing self within a construction”*. Construction here needs to have something constructed, like constructed subject and object (self and other or community).

Holland (1999) develops two main levels of reflexivity. Level one is named as a self-contained version of reflexivity which follows the accepted rules of social science and does not become a part of conflict. Knowledge of self is in the limits of social science in this level. Furthermore, parallel to the developments in social science, level two as a trans-disciplinary form of reflexivity emerged. Level two criticizes the role of intellectuals in social science and brings a trans-disciplinary understanding of reflexivity in sociology and psychology through combining disciplines (Ibid).

Reflexivity provides a mutual and continuing interaction between the self and the research topic. Self develops the research process but also it is developed through that same process. Here, three types of selves have emerged: *“....selves based around the role of researchers; selves formed through socio-historic existence; and selves determined by the situation or research environment”* (Howell, 2013: 186). Each self needs to criticize the research processes and their relationship with the research (Ibid).

The researcher is a fundamental part of the research with giving meaning to data which is collected through methods. Collected data is just a pile of information without the researcher's interpretations (Gilbert, 2008). Therefore, self-reflection is *sine qua non* part of the research process. But here, researchers should not forget that they have a social identity and personal background which have been affected by their previous experiences (Robson, 2011). Reflexivity is an inseparable part of ethnographic research and provides the researcher another window into the research field, and therefore (Boyle, 1994) is affected by deeper insights of emic and etic interpretations (Goulding, 2005). Reflexivity in ethnography needs to have an understanding of social dynamics and their relationship with epistemology. Reaching knowledge through different structural processes provides researchers access to the social world and thus reaches specific conclusions that can be passed on to others for further understanding (Roberts and Sanders, 2005). Moreover, reflexivity is an ongoing development in research as it begins with constructing objects, but in the end, the constructed constructs self within a construction (Alvesson and Sköldbberg, 2009; and, Howell, 2013). Therefore, if someone writes out a whole study from beginning to the end like a diary, it could very well demonstrate every step of reflexivity.

While I was working at NATO from March 2010 to October of that year, I faced some managerial difficulties, especially vis-à-vis motivation, since despite the fact that some preferred verbal and written motivational incentives, contrarily, others were motivated through financial instruments, such as rewards and bonuses. The latter group posited encouraging words as just empty talk and commendation letters merely as worthless paper. As a human resource manager, this managerial challenge peaked my interest at that time. When I decided to pursue a doctoral degree, I recalled this problem area and decided to study it.

After making a literature survey, I realized that grand theories of leadership and culture are influencing the issue of multicultural workforce motivation. Initially I had seen power as a complementary concept of leadership. However, during the investigation I realized that power is the source topic of other theories and decided to investigate its concept independently. Now I have come to the realization that if I had focused on power as an individual concept, I could have brought on more concrete results as concerns the power concept.

I utilized ethnographic research methodology along with three methods: interviews, focus groups, and observations. During the data gathering process, I realized that the combination of the three methods complement each other and fit well together, especially in an ethnographic research.

In addition, being the moderator of focus group discussions was also an interesting experience. Particularly, making certain of the equal involvement of all participants, keeping neutrality in discussions, and grasping group dynamics, were the most challenging responsibilities as a moderator. Furthermore, my educational background is not related to either psychology or sociology, however, in order to make effective observations, I read many books and tried to increase my knowledge on how to carryout observations. I have therefore come to realize that gaining the knowhow to carryout observations is an important advantage not only for research purposes, but also for life skills as well.

Before carrying out this research, I had assumed that in order to motivate different nationalities, specific motivational tools must be developed for them separately. However, after having lived abroad for some time while working in a multicultural environment, I have come to realize that national culture is in the process of metamorphosis and individuals are being organised by internationality, while transnational individuals are finding solidarity and beginning to spend more of their spare time with each other and as groups. Sighting this transition vis-à-vis cultures was a relatively interesting experience.

Regarding ontological, epistemological and methodological concerns, I utilized critical theory as a paradigm of inquiry in the research. On the subject of my military background, thinking critically is not an asset in highly hierarchical structures, hence I am not used to having that mind-set which provides for critical thinking. However, without difficulty, I did adapt to think critically and now believe that it is one of the biggest self-acquirements of this research. Finally, of course, I learned how to write a rigorous academic paper. I think as long as I stay in academia, this acquisition will help me at every step that I have to take.

12.6 Recommendations for Future Studies

The researcher of this study explored the impact of culture, leadership, and power, on staff motivation in the context of IOs, through the lenses of critical theory as a paradigm of inquiry. This approach provided a holistic understanding, especially as regards the philosophical conceptualism of IOs, and encouraged the use of qualitative research typology as the paradigm for methodology. Explorative and qualitative research facilitated understanding of complex concepts, such as, motivation, leadership, culture and power. Nonetheless, this approach did bring some limitations, especially where it concerns generalization of findings. As a future research area, quantitative inquiries which take into consideration generalization concerns, may be conducted, especially in the area of finding a generally accepted definition for international culture and making a clear distinction between the Kantian deontological ethics and the Machiavellian teleological understanding, as regards the power concept at IOs.

The subject area for this research covers four Geneva-based intergovernmental organizations. Further studies should reach out and include participants of international non-governmental organizations, transnational hybrid institutions, and other IOs, which are located in other geographic areas outside of Geneva, Switzerland, in order for transferability of findings to be expanded to other types and locations of IOs.

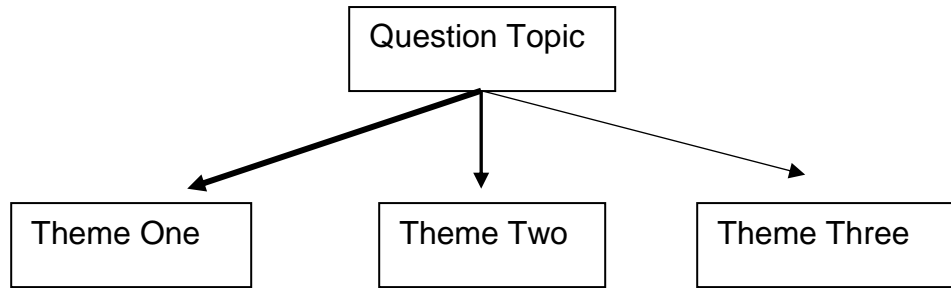
In conclusion, this research attained its main objective by developing a theoretical framework to assist with the practice of staff motivation. Further deductive studies may apply this framework into a living work environment and test the areas of applicability for it.

APPENDIX A: SEMI STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Could you tell me roughly how many staff from different nationalities are working with you? Also what are your main concerns while you are working with them?
2. How do you describe the characteristics of power while managing staff in the context of an international organization?
3. What do you think of unexpected events that happen while working with multinational teams?
4. How do you encourage good human nature as regards your staff?
5. How do you create team spirit in your team?
6. How do you ensure a sense of belonging in your team?
7. How is your relationship with members of your team at work and out of work?
8. How do you distribute roles, power and responsibility between the genders in your team?
9. Could you describe your main time focus at work? (Past, present or future)
10. How do you improve the performance of your team at work?
11. What is your personal definition of effective leadership?
12. How do you achieve your objectives at work?
13. I would like to ask about the effect of cultural differences on motivation. Could you elaborate the difficulties of motivation of staff from different nationalities?
14. Could you provide some specific examples of what you did which resulted in significant levels of increased or decreased motivation of your staff?
15. What do you think are the most effective motivational tools for staff in the context of international organizations?
16. Do you have anything to add?

Thank you again for participating in this interview. Again, let me assure you of the confidentiality of your responses. If you have any further questions, please feel free to contact me by e-mail at erdemerciyes@yahoo.com.

APPENDIX B: Focus Group Research Map



The map shows the question topic and the themes that emerged for the research. The weight of the lines shows the relation of question and theme in the focus group. Lines with heavier weights indicate a theme was more important than themes with lower weighted lines (Nagle and Williams, 2009: 9).

QUESTIONS

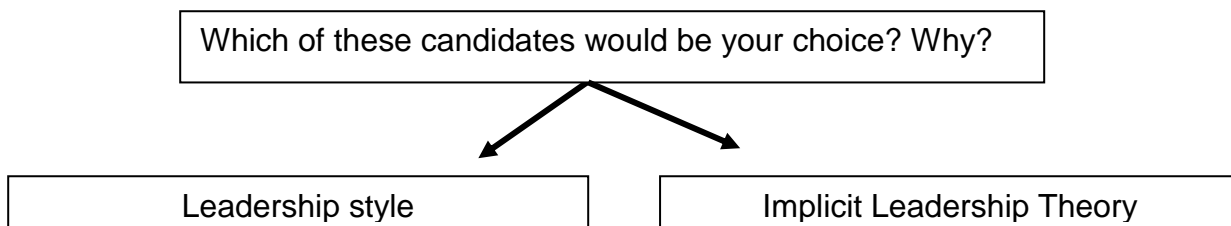
1. It is time to elect an effective leader, and only your vote counts. Here are the facts about the three leading candidates.

Candidate A – He suffers from paralysis and uses a wheel chair. He has two Mistresses. He smokes and drinks heavily.

Candidate B – He pled guilty to 156 acts of public violence, spent 27 years in prison, and married three times.

Candidate C – He is an artist and a vegetarian. He likes working much. He does not smoke, and drinks an occasional beer.

(<http://www.sttudy.co.uk/media/other/30781/Electionpdf.pdf>)



Answers:

Candidate A is Franklin D. Roosevelt.

Candidate B is Nelson Mandela.

Candidate C is Adolph Hitler.

2.

"A Prince who wants to stay in power must necessarily learn to be other than virtuous, and must make use of his knowledge, or not, according to circumstances"

Machiavelli (2008: 65)

What do you think about this phrase?

McClelland's Power Need

Human Orientation

Power Distance

Leadership style

3.

© Randy Glasbergen
glasbergen.com



"My boss accidentally made me feel valued and respected today."

How is your relationship with your supervisor at work and out of work?

Affiliation

Human Orientation

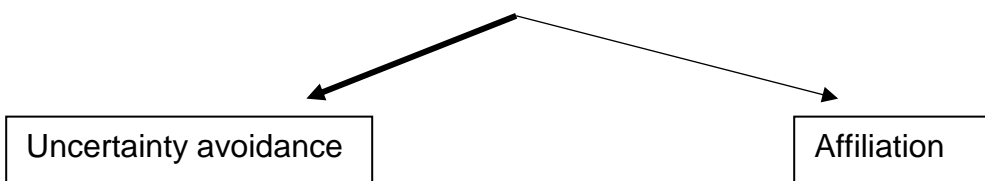
Assertiveness

4.



(www.cabot.net/buttons/unexpected.php)

What do you think about unexpected events that occur in your organization?

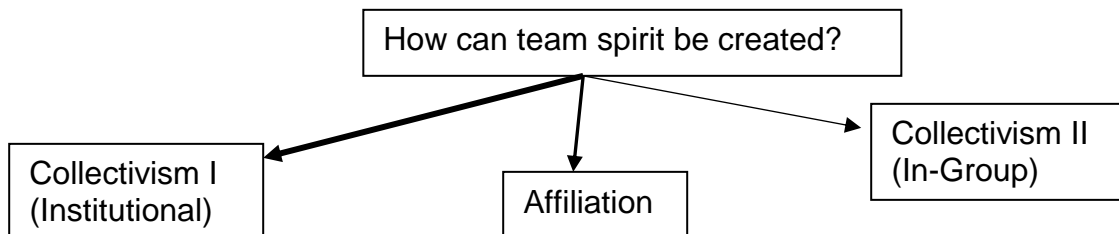


5.

© Randy Glasbergen.
www.glasbergen.com



"How can you say we're not behaving like a team?
We're all wearing the same color shirts, aren't we?"



6.



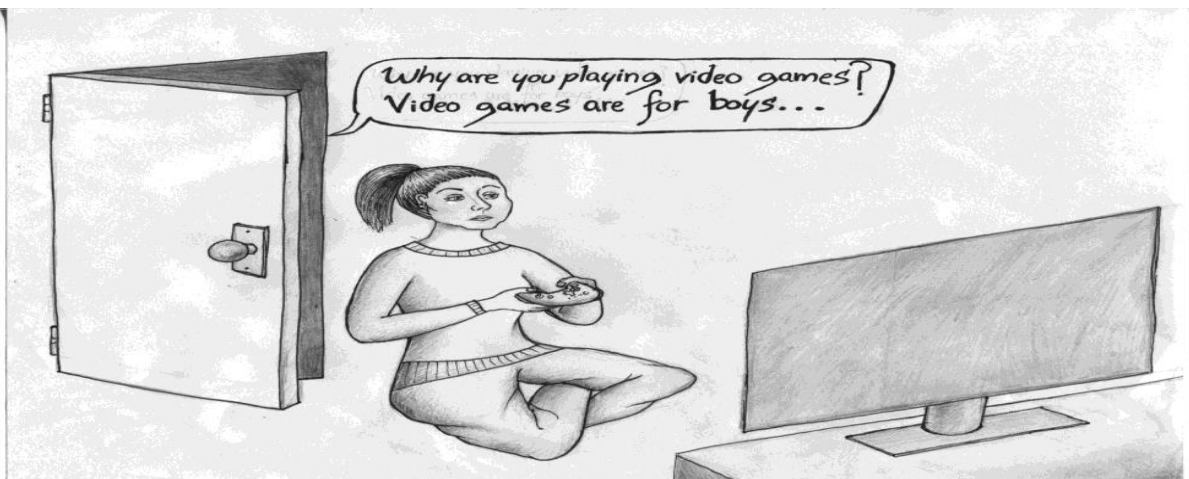
What does this cartoon evoke in you, as a staff of an International organization?

Collectivism II
(In-Group)

Affiliation

Collectivism I
(Institutional)

7.



What would you say about this cartoon, if you applied it to a working context in your team?

Gender Roles

8.



How do you achieve your objectives at work?

Achievement

Performance Orientation

Future Orientation

9.



<http://diversitypropaganda.blogspot.com/>

Could you elaborate difficulties vis-à-vis staff motivation from different national backgrounds?



RQ: What factors do IO supervisors consider when they desire to motivate staff who originate from different cultural backgrounds?

RQ: How do the motivation strategies of IO supervisors differentiate according to staff cultural backgrounds?

10.

Copyright 2005 by Randy Glasbergen.
www.glasbergen.com



"I need something to motivate our employees. Should I order dispensers, comb and brush kits?"

How can staff be motivated in the context of international organization?

RQ: Which motivational tools are the most effective for staff in IOs?

RQ: Which scientific motivational approaches are used to encourage staff in IOs?

RQ: How can supervisors motivate their staff in the context of IOs?

APPENDIX C: Focus Group Evaluation Form¹²⁵

Beside each of the following statements, Please place a tick in the appropriate box.	Yes	No	Not Sure
The focus group was better than I expected			
I liked the method of using caricatures in discussions			
The questions were easy to understand			
I enjoyed discussing this topic with my colleagues			
We were given enough time for discussion			
The facilitator encouraged participation			
I found chances to express my opinions			
I felt that I was listened to			
A focus group is a good way of consulting with colleagues			

Please tick the response you agree with:

Overall, the focus group was.....	<input type="checkbox"/> Great	<input type="checkbox"/> Good	<input type="checkbox"/> OK	<input type="checkbox"/> Poor
The facilitator was.....	<input type="checkbox"/> Great	<input type="checkbox"/> Good	<input type="checkbox"/> OK	<input type="checkbox"/> Boring

Was there something you think we should have discussed but did not?

Any other comments? (*E.g. what you liked or did not like; how the discussion could be improved*)

Thank you.

¹²⁵ This form was adapted from the work of the Commission for Children and Young People and Child Guardian.

APPENDIX D: FOCUS GROUP GUIDE¹²⁶

WELCOME

Thanks for agreeing to be part of the focus group. I owe you a debt of gratitude for your willingness to participate.

PURPOSE OF FOCUS GROUPS

My name is Erdem Erciyes. I am pursuing doctorate of public administration at Plymouth University. I will conduct this focus group. The reason for doing this focus group is to investigate the impact of culture, leadership, and power, on staff motivation in selected IOs and develop a theoretical framework to assist with the practice of staff motivation. I need your input and want you to share your honest and open thoughts with us.

GROUND RULES

1. I WANT YOU TO DO THE TALKING

I would like for everyone to participate.

I may call on you if I have not heard from you in a while.

2. THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS

Every person's experiences and opinions are important.

Please speak up whether you agree or disagree.

We want to hear a wide range of opinions.

3. WHAT IS SAID IN THIS ROOM STAYS HERE

All personal information and answers provided will be kept in strict confidentiality. I will not identify anyone by name in our report. You will remain anonymous.

4. I WILL USE TAPE RECORDING

I want to capture everything you have to say. Well, let's begin. I have placed name cards on the table in front of you to help us remember each other by going around the table.

Please tell us your name, your nationality, and how long you have been in multinational teams.

¹²⁶ This guide is adapted from the work of https://assessment.trinity.duke.edu/documents/How_to_Conduct_a_Focus_Group.pdf.

APPENDIX E: OBSERVATION PLAN

Observation type: Non-participatory, structured and overt observation.

Observation aim: Identifying Schein's artifacts levels of culture in the context of International Organizations (IOs).

Observation place: WTO, UNCTAD, ITC and WHO.

Who and what will be observed? Staff and facilities of these international organizations.

Observation time: Three days which will differ according to availabilities of IOs.

Observation recording: The researcher will take field notes by hand.

Observation approach: IOs will be informed with a protocol before observation. The researcher will follow three-day working schedules of IOs. During observation, he will focus on limited areas and describe what he sees and feels.

Observation areas: The surface level of Schein's organizational culture model is Artifacts: Visible organizational structure and process, language, symbols, organizational climate, myths and observed rituals.

- What is the general physical description of the organization? (organizational climate)
- Are there any status perquisites, such as special lunch quarters, parking places and working rooms? (organizational climate)
- How do the staff dress? (organizational climate)
- How many staff members work in each room? (organizational climate)
- How do the staff interact? (organizational climate)
- How does the organization work? (organizational structure)
- Are there any visible symbols in the organization? (symbol)
- Is there any commonly used terminology at the organization? (language)
- How many coffee breaks are given to the staff each day? (ritual)
- How long do lunches take? (ritual)
- Do the staff actually discuss their work at coffee breaks and lunch? (ritual)

Reflexive Comments:

Date:

APPENDIX F: Supervisor Interview Protocol

Subject: The impact of culture, leadership, and power, on staff motivation in the context of international organizations.

Object: The main research objective is to investigate the impact of culture, leadership and power on staff motivation in selected IOs and develop a theoretical framework to assist with the practice of staff motivation.

Method: Semi-structured interview technique will be used in this research. If the interviewee accepts, the discussion will be recorded with a digital voice recorder. All personal information and given answers will be kept strictly confidential. The value and success of the research completely depends on the participation of interviewees.

Language: English

Time of Interview: 30 minutes

Definitions of key terms:

1. Culture of a group: A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems (Schein, 1992:12).

2. Good human nature: Being fair, altruistic, generous, caring and kind towards others (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961).

3. Gender: The behavioural, cultural, or psychological traits typically associated with one sex.

4. Leadership: The ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of their organization (GLOBE study, 2004).

5. Motivation: Internal and external factors that stimulate desire and energy in people to be continually interested and committed to a job, role or subject, or to make an effort to attain a goal. (<http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/motivation.html>)

6. Multinational Team: More than two staff from different nationalities in a team (Earley and Gibson, 2002).

7. Power: Power is as a relation between two individuals, or groups of individuals, in which one of these can give direction to the behaviour of the other or can determine his behaviour, and this more than the reverse (Mulder, 1976).

QUESTIONS

APPENDIX G: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW CONSENT FORM

Invitation to Participate

You have been asked to participate in a doctoral research study regarding staff motivation in the context of international organizations. Before you decide whether or not to respond questions, please read the following explanations carefully.

What is the research objective of the study?

The main research objective is to investigate the impact of culture, leadership, and power, on staff motivation in selected IOs and develop a theoretical framework to assist with the practice of staff motivation.

Method: Semi-Structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews utilize fixed questions that can be adapted during the interview process. To this effect, they provide an open discussion and enable a better understanding of the situation under analysis (Howell, 2013).

Participation in the Study?

Because you manage staff in an international organization, we would like you to take part in this research. Of course, the decision is yours, but if you do decide to take part, this information sheet will be given to you for your own keeping and you will be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to participate in this research, you are free to withdraw at any time during the session without making any explanation.

Language

English will be used as the main discussion language. If you have any difficulties speaking English, please notify before beginning the interview.

Risks

Any apparent risks could not be identified by the researcher.

Privacy

Your privacy will be ensured. All personal information and answers will be kept strictly confidential. Your name will not be used in any published documentation.

Audio Record Permission

If you do agree, the discussion shall be recorded with digital voice recorders. If not, then you may request that the voice recorders be turned off at any time and the interview be conducted by other means.

I agree to be recorded with digital voice recorders ____Yes ____No

Findings from the Research Study

A summary of the research findings will be provided, on request, to all participants.

Questions

If you have any further questions, please feel free to contact me at any time: erdemerciyes@yahoo.com.

Please write your name and date, check yes or no and sign.

NAME

_____ Yes, I take part in the semi-structured interview.

_____ No, I do not want to participate in the semi-structured interview.

SIGNATURE

DATE

APPENDIX H: FOCUS GROUP CONSENT FORM

Invitation to Participate

You have been asked to participate in a doctoral research study regarding staff motivation in the context of international organizations. Before you decide whether or not to respond questions, please read the following explanations carefully.

What is the objective of the study?

The main research objective is to investigate the impact of culture, leadership, and power, on staff motivation in selected IOs and develop a theoretical framework to assist with the practice of staff motivation.

Method: Focus Groups

A focus group is a group of selected individuals assembled by the researcher to discuss and comment on personal experiences regarding the research subject (Powell and Single, 1996). Focus groups provide more in depth understanding of the phenomena being studied (Nagle and Williams, 2009). Therefore, it will be used in this research as one of the research methods.

Participation in the Study?

Due to the fact that you are a staff in an international organization, we would like you to take part in this research. Of course the decision remains yours, if you do decide to participate, this information sheet will be given to you for your own keeping and you will be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to participate in this research, you are free to withdraw at any time during the session without making any explanation.

Language

English will be used as the main discussion language. If you have any difficulties speaking English, please notify before beginning the focus group discussion.

Risks

Any apparent risks could not be identified by the researcher.

Privacy

Your privacy will be ensured. All personal information and answers will be kept strictly confidential. Your name will not be used in any published documentation.

Audio/Visual Record Permission

If all the participants agree, the discussion will be recorded with digital voice recorders and cameras. You can state that you do not want the discussion to be recorded by electronic mediums, and request that the voice recorder or camera be turned off at any time.

I agree to be audio/visual recorded ____Yes ____No

Findings from the Research Study

A summary of the research findings will be provided, by request, to all participants.

Questions

If you have any further questions, please feel free to contact me at any time: erdemerciyes@yahoo.com.

Please write your name and date, check yes or no and sign.

NAME

_____ Yes, I take part in the focus group.

_____ No, I do not want to participate in the focus group.

SIGNATURE

DATE

APPENDIX I: CODING of the INTERVIEWS

WTO

QUESTION NO	1
PRELIMINARY CODING	No concern, behaving differently, different communication, cultural sensitivity
FINAL CODING	No concern, different communication, cultural sensitivity
TYPOLOGIES	Concern
THEMES	Culture

QUESTION NO	2
PRELIMINARY CODING	Hierarchy, title, rank, level, team effort
FINAL CODING	Hierarchy, rank, team effort
TYPOLOGIES	Soft and Hard
THEMES	Power

QUESTION NO	3
PRELIMINARY CODING	Dealing with it, do not panic, reviewing the best possible approach, getting used to, consulting with other colleagues, specialties or superiors, happen always, relying on teams, adaptability, "expertising", willingness to go extra mile, recognizing cultural differences, keeping cool, planning ahead, discussing all the details, reorganizing priorities
FINAL CODING	Dealing with it, reviewing the best possible approach, getting used to it, consulting with other colleagues, specialties or superiors, happens always, relying on teams, adaptability, "expertising", willingness to go extra mile, recognizing cultural differences, keeping cool, planning ahead, discussing all the details, reorganizing priorities
TYPOLOGIES	Uncertainty avoidance, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	4
PRELIMINARY CODING	Performance assessment, recognizing cultural diversity, building friendships, trust and acceptability, teamwork, one single good thing, striking a balance between kindness and firmness, chatting, offering a cup of coffee, asking individual problems, setting an example, being fair
FINAL CODING	Performance assessment, recognizing cultural diversity, building friendships, trust and acceptability, teamwork, one single good thing, striking a balance between kindness and firmness, social interaction, asking individual problems, setting an example, being fair
TYPOLOGIES	Human orientation, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation

NO	5
PRELIMINARY CODING	Social activities, weekly meetings, facing challenges together, developing technical expertise, defining responsibilities, setting up a target, encouraging exchange of views, recognition of efforts, increasing individual career prospects, involving team members, discussing together, and giving a pat on the back
FINAL CODING	Social activities, weekly meetings, facing challenges together, developing technical expertise, defining responsibilities, setting up a target, encouraging exchange of views, recognition of efforts, increasing individual career prospects, involving team members into decisions
TYPOLOGIES	Institutional collectivism, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	6
PRELIMINARY CODING	Top management decision, showing care of needs, nurturing periodically, interacting, recognizing small works, involving staff into projects, promoting, giving more responsibility
FINAL CODING	Top management decision, showing care of staff's needs, nurturing periodically, interacting, recognizing small works, involving staff into projects, promoting, giving more responsibility
TYPOLOGIES	In-group collectivism, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation
QUESTION NO	7
PRELIMINARY CODING	Respect, limited outside relations, birthdays, lunches, professional, more objective oriented, individual care
FINAL CODING	Respect, limited outside relations, professional, more objective oriented
TYPOLOGIES	Affiliation, human orientation and assertiveness
THEMES	Culture, motivation
QUESTION NO	8
PRELIMINARY CODING	No gender
FINAL CODING	No gender
TYPOLOGIES	Gender
THEMES	Culture

QUESTION NO	9
PRELIMINARY CODING	Future; present and future; combination of past, present and future
FINAL CODING	Future; present and future; combination of past, present and future
TYPOLOGIES	Time Orientation
THEMES	Culture

QUESTION NO	10
PRELIMINARY CODING	Communication, trainings, feeling of recognition, a good promotion policy, being consistent, being objective and firm, providing a certain career path, giving sense of autonomy, matching capacity and task, periodic reviews, explanation of expectations, discussing, being accessible, giving a certain direction, providing their enjoyment
FINAL CODING	Communication, trainings, feeling of recognition, a good promotion policy, being consistent, being objective and firm, providing a certain career path, giving sense of autonomy, matching capacity and task, periodic reviews, explanation of expectations, being accessible, giving a certain direction.
TYPOLOGIES	Performance Orientation
THEMES	Culture

QUESTION NO	11
PRELIMINARY CODING	Inspiring, motivating, persuading, visionary, sharing information, achieving outcome, individual characteristics, ability to command, satisfying superiors, outcome in time and good quality, ensuring extra mile, fairness, knowledgeable, good communicator, identifying clear objectives, being nice and humane, truthful, honest, having integrity, leading from the front, being an example
FINAL CODING	Inspiring, motivating, persuading, visionary, sharing information, achieving outcome, ability to command, satisfying superiors, ensuring extra mile, fairness, sound knowledge, good communicator, identifying clear objectives, being nice and humane, truthful, honest, having integrity, leading from the front, being an example
TYPOLOGIES	Effective Leadership
THEMES	Leadership

QUESTION NO	12
PRELIMINARY CODING	Flexibility, requirements, communicating and learning with others, certain targets, deadlines, a timeframe, setting realistic objectives, input from others, focusing, dedication, priorities
FINAL CODING	Flexibility, requirements, interaction with colleagues, certain targets, a timeframe, setting realistic objectives, focusing, dedication, priorities
TYPOLOGIES	Achievement, performance orientation, future orientation
THEMES	Motivation, culture

QUESTION NO	13
PRELIMINARY CODING	Nationality does not matter, respect, individual motivation
FINAL CODING	Nationality does not matter, individual motivation, and transformation
TYPOLOGIES	Multi-nationality
THEMES	Motivation, culture

QUESTION NO	14
PRELIMINARY CODING	Demotivating: external employment, staff unmatched work, unrecognition, no promotion, not having career path building process, lack of communication, false hopes. Motivating: showing appreciation, highlighting achievement of the staff, autonomy, smaller timeframes and achievable goals, being nice, taking responsibility for staff's failure, a new topic
FINAL CODING	Demotivating: unfairness, staff unmatched work, unrecognition, no promotion, lack of communication, false hopes. Motivating: showing appreciation, highlighting achievement of the staff, autonomy, smaller time frames and achievable goals, being nice, taking responsibility of staff's failure, a new topic
TYPOLOGIES	Demotivating, motivating
THEMES	Motivation

QUESTION NO	15
PRELIMINARY CODING	Monetary: financial advantages, bonus, Non-monetary: making contribution to the international community, recognition, additional responsibility, having title, promotion, regular motivation, representation of the organization, job satisfaction, career development, training
FINAL CODING	Monetary: financial advantages, bonus. Non-monetary: recognition, having additional responsibility, title, promotion, regular motivation, representation of the organization, job satisfaction, career development, training
TYPOLOGIES	Monetary, non-monetary tools
THEMES	Motivation

UNCTAD

QUESTION NO	1
PRELIMINARY CODING	Professional work, personality
FINAL CODING	Professional work, personality
TYPOLOGIES	Concern
THEMES	Culture

QUESTION NO	2
PRELIMINARY CODING	Being able to utilize resources and set and shape an agenda, defining rules, ability to use information and vision of ultimate goals, showing kind of subtle respect, being able to evaluate staff
FINAL CODING	Being able to utilize resources, evaluate staff and set and shape an agenda, defining rules, ability to use information and vision of ultimate goals, showing kind of subtle respect
TYPOLOGIES	Soft power
THEMES	Power
QUESTION NO	3

PRELIMINARY CODING	Bringing together senior staff and discussing, panic then solutions, gathering much information, teamwork, not being very straight-forward
FINAL CODING	Bringing together senior staff and discussing, panic then solutions, gathering much information, teamwork, being flexible
TYPOLOGIES	Uncertainty avoidance, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	4
PRELIMINARY CODING	Interaction, listening, showing concern, respect and tolerance, good hiring selection process, freedom, positive feedback, make feel appreciated and involved
FINAL CODING	Interaction, showing concern, generosity, flexibility, respect and tolerance, good hiring selection process, autonomy, positive feedback, make feel appreciated and involved
TYPOLOGIES	Human orientation, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	5
PRELIMINARY CODING	Highlighting individual contributions, setting a good example, caring for staff, understanding staff's capacity, social events, going on missions together, sharing a vision
FINAL CODING	Highlighting individual contribution, setting a good example, caring for staff, understanding staff's capacity, social events, going on missions together, sharing a vision
TYPOLOGIES	Institutional collectivism, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	6
PRELIMINARY CODING	Interaction, discussing, supporting, collective output and achievement, common interest, empowering, keeping informed, celebration
FINAL CODING	Interacting, supporting, collective output and achievement, common interest, empowering, keeping informed, celebration
TYPOLOGIES	In-group collectivism, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	7
PRELIMINARY CODING	Avoiding favouritism, little interaction out of work, missions
FINAL CODING	Little interaction out of work, missions
TYPOLOGIES	Affiliation, human orientation and assertiveness
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	8
PRELIMINARY CODING	Gender neutral
FINAL CODING	Gender neutral
TYPOLOGIES	Gender
THEMES	Culture

QUESTION NO	9
PRELIMINARY CODING	Future; past; present and future; combination of past, present and future
FINAL CODING	Future; past; present and future; combination of past, present and future
TYPOLOGIES	Time Orientation
THEMES	Culture

QUESTION NO	10
PRELIMINARY CODING	Impractical usage of carrot and stick, encouragement, travelling, empowerment, trainings, positive feedback
FINAL CODING	Impractical usage of carrot and stick, encouragement, travelling, empowerment, trainings, positive feedback
TYPOLOGIES	Performance Orientation
THEMES	Culture

QUESTION NO	11
PRELIMINARY CODING	Staff's desire to follow, setting an example, honesty, confidence, be respected, trust, thoughtful, fairness, discreet, succinct, results based, team oriented
FINAL CODING	Being desired to be followed, setting an example, honesty, confidence, be respected, thoughtful, fairness, discreet, succinct, results based, team oriented
TYPOLOGIES	Effective Leadership
THEMES	Leadership

QUESTION NO	12
PRELIMINARY CODING	Roadmap, being realistic, consideration of strengths and weaknesses, perseverance, reasoning, self-convinced, time schedule, determine objectives and priorities, engagement of team
FINAL CODING	Roadmap, being realistic, consideration of strengths and weaknesses, perseverance, self-convinced, time schedule, determine objectives and priorities, engagement of a team
TYPOLOGIES	Achievement, performance orientation, future orientation
THEMES	Motivation, culture

QUESTION NO	13
PRELIMINARY CODING	Nationality does not matter, perception of promotion
FINAL CODING	Nationality does not matter, perception of promotion
TPOLOGIES	Multi-nationality
THEMES	Motivation, culture

QUESTION NO	14
PRELIMINARY CODING	Demotivating: lack of communication, limited vacant posts, restriction of flexible work hours, not being recognized, giving more work than staff's capacity, giving boring requests, and negative feedback. Motivating: encouraging people to talk, building links with universities and other, research centre, helping for staff's promotion, going abroad to do field work, listening to the staff, giving more responsibility and autonomy, positive feedback
FINAL CODING	Demotivating: lack of communication, limited vacant posts, restriction of flexible work hours, not being recognized, giving more work than staff's capacity, boring requests, and negative feedback. Motivating: encouraging people to talk, building links with universities and other research centres, helping with staff's promotion, going abroad to do field work, listening to the staff, giving more responsibility and autonomy, positive feedback
TPOLOGIES	Demotivating, motivating
THEMES	Motivation

QUESTION NO	15
PRELIMINARY CODING	Augmenting the budget, lessen bureaucracy and routine works, more challenges, seeing result of public service work, giving higher responsibility, expanding promotion options, recognizing achievement of staff, matching staff capacity with proper work, doing team building exercises, providing training opportunities, work travel, positive feedback, giving feeling of involvement, clearly defining vision
FINAL CODING	Augmenting the budget, lessening bureaucracy, giving more challenges and higher responsibilities, seeing result of public service work, expanding promotion options, recognizing achievement of staff, matching staff capacity with proper work, doing team building exercises, providing training and work travel opportunities, giving positive feedback and feeling of involvement, defining a clear vision
TPOLOGIES	Monetary, non-monetary tools
THEMES	Motivation

ITC

QUESTION NO	1
PRELIMINARY CODING	Avoiding offence, providing efficiency, no concern, preoccupation, challenge
FINAL CODING	Avoiding offence, providing efficiency, no concern, preoccupation, challenge
TYPOLOGIES	Concern
THEMES	Culture

QUESTION NO	2
PRELIMINARY CODING	Hierarchy, having charisma and certain relationships, being knowledgeable, capacity to get things delivered, achieving goals
FINAL CODING	Hierarchy, having network, being knowledgeable, capacity to get things delivered, achieving goals
TYPOLOGIES	Hard and soft power
THEMES	Power

QUESTION NO	3
PRELIMINARY CODING	Dynamic of a team, team interactions and discussions, getting a tailored solution
FINAL CODING	Dynamic of a team, team interactions, getting a tailored solution
TYPOLOGIES	Uncertainty avoidance, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	4
PRELIMINARY CODING	Sharing coffee and lunch breaks, understanding and good things, being good example by caring and listening, open to have dialogue, showing respect, trust
FINAL CODING	Sharing coffee and lunch breaks, understanding and good things, being good example by caring and listening, open to have dialogue, showing respect, trust
TYPOLOGIES	Human orientation, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	5
PRELIMINARY CODING	Meetings, not excluding, drinking coffee, small social events, sharing a common goal, being helpful, proper guidance, show sensitivity and respect, avoiding jokes and humour, spirit of values, information sharing, open dialogue, sharing times, lunching together, motivation, sharing concerns, solidarity
FINAL CODING	Meetings, not excluding, partaking at small social events, sharing a common goal, proper guidance, show sensitivity and respect, avoiding jokes and humours, spirit of values, information sharing, open dialogue, motivation, sharing concerns, solidarity
TYPOLOGIES	Institutional collectivism, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	6
PRELIMINARY CODING	Individual recognition, involving staff, overlapping individual and organizational objects, creating team spirit
FINAL CODING	Individual recognition, involving staff, overlapping individual and organizational objects, creating team spirit
TYPOLOGIES	In-group collectivism, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	7
PRELIMINARY CODING	Official, social activity, keeping a distance, work travel, sharing special events
FINAL CODING	Official, social activity, work travel, sharing special events
TYPOLOGIES	Affiliation, human orientation and assertiveness
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	8
PRELIMINARY CODING	Gender equality
FINAL CODING	Gender equality
TYPOLOGIES	Gender
THEMES	Culture

QUESTION NO	9
PRELIMINARY CODING	Future; present and future; combination of past, present and future
FINAL CODING	Future; present and future; combination of past, present and future
TYPOLOGIES	Time Orientation
THEMES	Culture

QUESTION NO	10
PRELIMINARY CODING	Certain interest, trainings, meetings, feedback, proper guidance, autonomy, reviewing, recognizing, greetings, decentralizing the responsibility, empowering, sharing information, dialogue
FINAL CODING	Developing skills, meetings, feedback, proper guidance, autonomy, reviewing, recognizing, decentralizing responsibility, empowering, sharing information, dialogue
TYPOLOGIES	Performance Orientation
THEMES	Culture

QUESTION NO	11
PRELIMINARY CODING	Being visionary and inspirational, able to manage on a macro level, motivate and enhance skills sets of staff, result oriented, having technical capabilities, being accessible, showing love, care, honesty, fairness and justice, ensuring team spirit, not abusing power

FINAL CODING	Being visionary and inspirational, able to manage in a macro level and enhance skills sets of staff, result oriented, having technical capabilities, being accessible, showing love, care, honesty, fairness and justice, ensuring team spirit, not abusing power
TYPOLOGIES	Effective Leadership
THEMES	Leadership

QUESTION NO	12
PRELIMINARY CODING	Clear objectives, planning, timeframe, team spirit
FINAL CODING	Clear objectives, planning, timeframe, team spirit
TYPOLOGIES	Achievement, performance orientation, future orientation
THEMES	Motivation, culture
QUESTION NO	13
PRELIMINARY CODING	Cultural neutral, personality
FINAL CODING	Culture neutral, personality
TYPOLOGIES	Multi-nationality
THEMES	Motivation, culture

QUESTION NO	14
PRELIMINARY CODING	Demotivating: Not explaining tasks, taking all the credits myself, limited promotion opportunities, impeding opinions, giving boring tasks; Motivating: Giving deadlines, monitoring, work allocation, sensitivity to individual problems, possibility of expression, recognizing achievements, perspective of career evolution, information sharing, protecting, taking responsibilities.
FINAL CODING	Demotivating: Unexplained tasks, taking all the credits oneself, limited promotion opportunities, impeding opinions, giving boring tasks; Motivating: Giving deadlines, monitoring, work allocation, sensitivity to individual problems, possibility of expression, recognizing achievements, perspective of career evolution, information sharing, protecting, taking responsibilities of failures.
TYPOLOGIES	Demotivating, motivating
THEMES	Motivation

QUESTION NO	15
PRELIMINARY CODING	Working for a common good, trainings, allocating responsibility, minimum interference, opening new projects, respecting individuals' plans, increasing staff's technical capacities, equal voice, strengthening recognition of the organization, delegation, showing care and trust, leadership, more promotion opportunities.
FINAL CODING	Working for a common good, trainings, allocating responsibility, minimum interference, opening new projects, respecting individuals' plans, equal voice, strengthening recognition of the organization, delegation, showing care and trust, leadership, more promotion

	opportunities
TYPOLOGIES	Monetary, non-monetary tools
THEMES	Motivation

WHO

QUESTION NO	1
PRELIMINARY CODING	Difficulty to use humour, native English speaking, national work ethic, adaptation of newcomers, different symbols, colours and gestures
FINAL CODING	Difficulty to use humour, native English speaking, national work ethic, adaptation of newcomers, different symbols, colours and gestures
TYPOLOGIES	Concern
THEMES	Culture

QUESTION NO	2
PRELIMINARY CODING	Hierarchy, communication skills, knowledge, a processed output, grouping power, negotiation and consensus building, managing money, staff, decision making
FINAL CODING	Hierarchy, communication skills, being knowledgeable, a processed output, grouping power, negotiation and consensus building, managing money, staff, decision making
TYPOLOGIES	Soft and hard power
THEMES	Power

QUESTION NO	3
PRELIMINARY CODING	Communication, teamwork, leader role, clear mission statement, going along
FINAL CODING	Communication, team interaction, leader role, clear mission statement, going along
TYPOLOGIES	Uncertainty avoidance, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	4
PRELIMINARY CODING	Respect, being polite, tolerance, fairness, selection according to characteristics, meetings, retreats, home parties, encouraging to speak, common vision, building friendly and non-threatening work environment
FINAL CODING	Showing respect and tolerance, being polite, fairness, selection according to characteristics, meetings, retreats, home parties, encouraging to speak, common vision, building friendly and non-threatening work environment
TYPOLOGIES	Human orientation, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	5
PRELIMINARY CODING	Regular team meetings, having lunch together, anticipating problems, creating common language and goals, giving a team name, providing team's autonomy, having retreats, communicating, showing respect
FINAL CODING	Regular team meetings, having lunch together, anticipating problems in advance, creating common language and goals, giving a team name, providing team's autonomy, having retreats, communicating, showing respect
TYPLOGIES	Institutional collectivism, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	6
PRELIMINARY CODING	Team meetings, retreats, working across teams, communication channel, acknowledgement, giving equal importance, sharing the vision and failures, sharing information and knowledge, common vision
FINAL CODING	Team meetings, retreats, working across teams, communication channel, acknowledgement, giving equal importance, sharing the vision and failures, sharing information and knowledge
TYPLOGIES	In-group collectivism, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	7
PRELIMINARY CODING	Limited outside relations, professional relationship, dialogue
FINAL CODING	Limited outside relations, professional relationship, dialogue
TYPLOGIES	Affiliation, human orientation and assertiveness
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	8
PRELIMINARY CODING	Gender neutral
FINAL CODING	Gender neutral
TYPLOGIES	Gender
THEMES	Culture

QUESTION NO	9
PRELIMINARY CODING	Future, present, mixture of present and future
FINAL CODING	Future, present, mixture of present and future
TYPLOGIES	Time Orientation
THEMES	Culture

QUESTION NO	10
PRELIMINARY CODING	Guidelines, autonomy, auditing, meetings, personalization
FINAL CODING	Guidelines, autonomy, auditing, meetings, personalization
TYPOLOGIES	Performance Orientation
THEMES	Culture

QUESTION NO	11
PRELIMINARY CODING	Empowering, tailored based management, achieving objectives, having vision, ability to motivate, sharing accolades, facilitation, showing respect, being transparent, culturally sensitive, non-threatening, smart and fair, understanding staff's values
FINAL CODING	Empowering, tailored based management, achieving objectives, having vision, ability to motivate, sharing accolades, facilitation, showing respect, being transparent, culturally sensitive, non-threatening, smart and fair
TYPOLOGIES	Effective Leadership
THEMES	Leadership

QUESTION NO	12
PRELIMINARY CODING	Timeframes, adjusting priorities and objectives, deadlines, time management, human resource management, fund management
FINAL CODING	Timeframes, adjusting priorities and objectives, time management, human resource management, fund management
TYPOLOGIES	Achievement, performance orientation, future orientation
THEMES	Motivation, culture

QUESTION NO	13
PRELIMINARY CODING	Individual motivation, not national characteristics
FINAL CODING	Individual motivation, not national characteristics
TYPOLOGIES	Multi-nationality
THEMES	Motivation, culture

QUESTION NO	14
PRELIMINARY CODING	Demotivating: negative feedback, overly non-verbal communication, not saying a simple thanks, open conflict, a demanding boss, giving treadmills, criticizing publicly, having unmotivated supervisor. Motivating: positive feedback, giving responsibility, organizing routine drinks, work travel, reminding PSM, recognition, helping staff promotions, having a retreat, giving credit publicly, showing concern, listening to staff
FINAL CODING	Demotivating: negative feedback, overly non-verbal communication, not saying a simple thanks, open conflict, a demanding boss, giving treadmills, criticizing publicly, having unmotivated supervisor, Motivating: positive feedback, giving responsibility, organizing

	routine drinks, work travel, reminding PSM, recognition
TYPES	Demotivating, motivating
THEMES	Motivation.

QUESTION NO	15
PRELIMINARY CODING	Having appraisal systems, leader's clear guiding, acknowledgement, more promotion options, having human resource staff coming from the field, building team spirit, sharing the vision, forming the team with that vision, allowing everybody's contribution, developing individualized motivation system, recognition (individually and globally), travel opportunities, more responsibility, hiring more motivated persons, mobility, showing respect, salary and benefits
FINAL CODING	Having appraisal systems, leader's clear guiding, acknowledgement, more promotion options, having human resource staff coming from the field, building a team spirit, sharing the vision, forming the team with that vision, allowing everybody's contribution, developing individualized motivation system, recognition (individually and globally), travel opportunities, more responsibility, hiring more motivated persons, mobility, salary and benefits
TYPES	Monetary, non-monetary
THEMES	Motivation

APPENDIX J: CODING of the FOCUS GROUPS

WHO

QUESTION NO	1
PRELIMINARY CODING	Communication ability, clarity of communication, vision, sensibility, decision maker, fairness, honesty, thinking strategically, driving and taking responsibility
FINAL CODING	Communication, vision, sensibility, decision maker, fairness, honesty, thinking strategically, driving and taking responsibility
TYPOLOGIES	Effective leadership
THEMES	Leadership

QUESTION NO	2
PRELIMINARY CODING	Being logical, ability to use resources, precision, clarity, clear mind, good strategies, determination, without much noise, ability to motivate people, staff's will to help, loosely control, being responsible, achieving an output, desire, do it no matter how
FINAL CODING	Being logical, ability to use resources, precision, clear mind, good strategies, determination, without much noise, ability to motivate people, staff's will to help, loosely control, being responsible, achieving an output, desire
TYPOLOGIES	Human orientation, virtue
THEMES	Power, culture

QUESTION NO	3
PRELIMINARY CODING	No relationship out of work, clarity, transparency, efficiency, social events, travel, meeting occasionally
FINAL CODING	No relationship out of work, clarity, transparency, efficiency, social events, travel, meeting occasionally
TYPOLOGIES	Affiliation, human orientation and assertiveness
THEMES	Culture, motivation
QUESTION NO	4
PRELIMINARY CODING	React in a friendly circle, long term solution, facing, modifying plan, no emotional reaction, contingency plan, being familiar, taking it rationally
FINAL CODING	React in a friendly circle, long term solution, facing, modification, not showing emotional reaction, contingency plan, taking it rationally
TYPOLOGIES	Uncertainty avoidance, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	5
PRELIMINARY CODING	Believing and having the same object, explanation, repeating every day, respect, creating a need, transparent communication, validation, involving the staff into thinking process, avoiding favouritism, fairness, case by case approach, trust, competition, keeping the staff on the board
FINAL	Believing and having the same object, explanation, repeating every

CODING	day, respect, creating a need, transparent communication, involving the staff into thinking process, individual validation, fairness, case by case approach, trust, competition
TYPOLOGIES	Institutional collectivism, affiliation, in-group collectivism
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	6
PRELIMINARY CODING	Integration, communication, being open-minded, multicultural environment, corporate identity, work culture
FINAL CODING	Integration, communication, recognizing multicultural environment, corporate identity, work culture
TYPOLOGIES	In-group collectivism, affiliation, Institutional collectivism
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	7
PRELIMINARY CODING	No gender issue, subjective concern, stature issue, favouritism
FINAL CODING	No gender issue, subjective concern, stature issue, favouritism
TYPOLOGIES	Gender
THEMES	Culture

QUESTION NO	8
PRELIMINARY CODING	Deadline, just doing, not much room for creativity
FINAL CODING	Deadline, just doing, not much room for creativity
TYPOLOGIES	Achievement, performance orientation, future orientation
THEMES	Motivation and culture

QUESTION NO	9
PRELIMINARY CODING	Difficulty of adaptation to the work culture, not related with national background, individual motivation, need to challenge the staff
FINAL CODING	Difficulty of adaptation to the work culture, individual motivation
TYPOLOGIES	Multi-nationality
THEMES	Motivation, culture

QUESTION NO	10
PRELIMINARY CODING	Change, promotion, more money and power, giving more responsibility, having particular title, following and paying attention to the staff, carrot and stick, tapping their backs, saying thank you, fairness, career development, not demotivating, communication, realistic job-matching, flexible time using, going outside, more holidays.
FINAL CODING	Change, promotion, more money, power, responsibility, having particular title, following and paying attention to the staff, carrot and

	stick, showing appreciation, fairness, career development, not demotivating, communication, realistic job-matching, flexible time usage, going outside, more holidays
TYPOLOGIES	Monetary, non -monetary tools
THEMES	Motivation

UNCTAD

QUESTION NO	1
PRELIMINARY CODING	Reliable, being a good role model, organizer, balancing greater and collective good, being aware of followers' needs, being approachable and charming, delegating effectively, using human capital effectively, being clear, understanding resources/ constraints/weakness/strengths of the staff
FINAL CODING	According to the participants, the characteristics of an effective leader are: being reliable and a role model, having ability to organize things, delegating and using human capital, establishing a balance between greater and collective good, being aware of followers' needs, clear, approachable and charming, understanding resources/ constraints/weakness/strengths of the staff
TYPOLOGIES	Effective leadership
THEMES	Leadership

QUESTION NO	2
PRELIMINARY CODING	Applying various skill and tactics, needing to know everything, pragmatism, being virtuous, power definition: authority and responsibility, being older, validation, reaching goals, mandating a lot of staff
FINAL CODING	Applying various skill and tactics, needing to know everything, pragmatism, ethics, power definition: authority and responsibility, being older, validation, reaching goals, mandating a lot of staff
TYPOLOGIES	Virtue
THEMES	Power, culture

QUESTION NO	3
PRELIMINARY CODING	Participating in meetings, accessing information, communicating, feeling part of the team, autonomy, having clear cut objectives, assigning the same task to different staff, showing artificial kindness, social events: Lunch, dinner, giving a ride, travel.
FINAL CODING	Participating in meetings, being able to access information, communicating, feeling part of the team, having autonomy, providing clear cut objectives, assigning the same task to different staff, showing artificial kindness, social events: Lunch, dinner, giving a ride, travel
TYPOLOGIES	Affiliation, human orientation and assertiveness.
THEMES	Culture, motivation.

QUESTION NO	4
PRELIMINARY CODING	Feeling upset, disappointed, frustrated and horrible, reacting as a team, coherent action plan
FINAL CODING	Feeling upset, disappointed, frustrated and horrible, reacting as a team, coherent action plan
TYPOLOGIES	Uncertainty avoidance, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	5
PRELIMINARY CODING	Sharing mission and sacrifice, mutual respect, having a pretty good leader. Negatives: close door policy, no interaction, never introduced to team members, communication problem, lack of equity, getting late salary, not understanding personalities, lack leadership and direction, creating two kinds of staff as professional and others
FINAL CODING	Sharing mission and sacrifice, mutual respect, having a pretty good leader. Negatives: close door policy, no interaction, never introduced to team members, communication problem, lack of equity, leadership and direction, getting late salary, not understanding personalities, creating two kinds of staff as professional and others
TYPOLOGIES	Institutional collectivism, affiliation, in-group collectivism
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	6
PRELIMINARY CODING	Need to be felt valued and respected, stringent bureaucracy, feeling of inclusiveness, having permanent contract, benefits
FINAL CODING	Need to be felt valued/respected/included, stringent bureaucracy, having permanent contract, taking advantage of benefits
TYPOLOGIES	In-group collectivism, affiliation, Institutional collectivism
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	7
PRELIMINARY CODING	No gender issue
FINAL CODING	No gender issue
TYPOLOGIES	Gender
THEMES	Culture

QUESTION NO	8
PRELIMINARY CODING	Clearly defined and structured objectives, timeframes, deadlines
FINAL CODING	Clearly defined and structured objectives, timeframes
TYPOLOGIES	Achievement, performance orientation, future orientation
THEMES	Motivation, culture

QUESTION NO	9
PRELIMINARY CODING	Not related to national background, individual motivation
FINAL CODING	Not related to national background, individual motivation
TYPOLOGIES	Multi-nationality
THEMES	Motivation, culture

QUESTION NO	10
PRELIMINARY CODING	Focusing on individual motivation, establishing communication, taking into consideration interests of the staff, clearly structured and defined objectives, giving responsibility, recognition, feeling included, stability
FINAL CODING	Focusing on individual motivation, establishing communication, clearly structured and defined objectives, recognition, feeling included, stability
TYPOLOGIES	Non-monetary tools
THEMES	Motivation

ITC

QUESTION NO	1
PRELIMINARY CODING	Being able to put skills together such as being smart and efficient, making people listen and work together, being an example, being able to deliver vision and objectives and transform the organization, being able to send messages of his opinions and obtain desired resources, having certain personal qualities and sort of charisma
FINAL CODING	Being able to put skills together such as being smart and efficient, making people listen to him and work together, being an example and able to deliver vision, objectives and transform organization and communicate efficiently and obtain desired resources, having certain personal qualities and sort of charisma
TYPOLOGIES	Effective leadership
THEMES	Leadership

QUESTION NO	2
PRELIMINARY CODING	Making decisions, having authority and control over the staff, being able to spend money and sign documents
FINAL CODING	Making decisions, having authority and control over the staff, being able to spend money and sign documents
TYPOLOGIES	Human orientation, virtue
THEMES	Power, culture

QUESTION NO	3
PRELIMINARY CODING	No relationship out of work, natural, expressing myself, not being authoritative, letting do things, being open, having no boundaries, accessible
FINAL	No relationship out of work, natural, expressing self, not being

CODING	authoritative, letting do things, being open, having no boundaries, accessible
TYPOLOGIES	Affiliation, human orientation and assertiveness
THEMES	Culture, motivation
QUESTION NO	4
PRELIMINARY CODING	Being flexible and solution oriented
FINAL CODING	Being flexible and solution oriented
TYPOLOGIES	Uncertainty avoidance, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	5
PRELIMINARY CODING	Type of personality and leader, a good leader, trust and responsibility
FINAL CODING	Type of personality, a good leader, communication, trust and responsibility
TYPOLOGIES	Institutional collectivism, affiliation, in-group collectivism
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	6
PRELIMINARY CODING	Leader, favouritism and contract
FINAL CODING	Leader, favouritism and contract
TYPOLOGIES	In-group collectivism, affiliation, Institutional collectivism
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	7
PRELIMINARY CODING	No gender issue
FINAL CODING	No gender issue
TYPOLOGIES	Gender
THEMES	Culture
QUESTION NO	8
PRELIMINARY CODING	Prioritizing, focusing, not giving up, thinking positive, always keeping a smile, getting help form colleagues, having good working relationship, being flexible, trying to adapt
FINAL CODING	Prioritizing, focusing, not giving up, thinking positive, always keeping a smile, getting help form colleagues, having good working relationship, being flexible, trying to adapt
TYPOLOGIES	Achievement, performance orientation, future orientation
THEMES	Motivation and culture

QUESTION NO	9
PRELIMINARY CODING	Not related to national background, individual motivation
FINAL CODING	Not related to national background, individual motivation
TYPES	Multi-nationality
THEMES	Motivation, culture

QUESTION NO	10
PRELIMINARY CODING	Job security, work and life balance, being noticed by supervisors, hearing good words, acknowledgement, a nice supervisor
FINAL CODING	Job security, a work and life balance, being noticed by their supervisors, a nice supervisor
TYPES	Non-monetary tools
THEMES	Motivation

WHO

QUESTION NO	1
PRELIMINARY CODING	The ability of gathering people around an idea, building trust, being able to motivate others, taking responsibility, willing to go the extra mile, leading by example, humility
FINAL CODING	The ability of gathering people around an idea, building trust, being able to motivate others, taking responsibility, guiding people by being an example, showing humility
TYPES	Effective leadership
THEMES	Leadership

QUESTION NO	2
PRELIMINARY CODING	Public opinion, greater goal, ability to influence and achieve mission, network
FINAL CODING	Public opinion, greater goal, ability to influence and achieve mission, network
TYPES	Human orientation, virtue
THEMES	Power, culture

QUESTION NO	3
PRELIMINARY CODING	Professional distance, compartmentalization, friendly relationship
FINAL CODING	Professional distance, compartmentalization, friendly relationship
TYPES	Affiliation, human orientation and assertiveness
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	4
PRELIMINARY CODING	Be cheerful, not to plan too much, deal with it, love/not like, react immediately
FINAL CODING	Enjoy, not to plan too much, deal with it immediately, not like
TYPOLOGIES	Uncertainty avoidance, affiliation
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	5
PRELIMINARY CODING	Acknowledging everyone, giving individual tasks and at the end combining them, showing appreciation, supporting, listening, having a good leader, showing respect, developing a common wisdom, sharing information, creating a friendship environment
FINAL CODING	Acknowledging team members, giving individual tasks and at the end combining them, showing appreciation and respect, supporting, listening, having a good leader, developing a common wisdom, creating a friendship environment
TYPOLOGIES	Institutional collectivism, affiliation, in-group collectivism
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	6
PRELIMINARY CODING	Being valued, posting a feedback and assurance, having a badge, believing in the mission statement, feeling included
FINAL CODING	Being valued by posting feedback and assurance, having a badge, believing in the mission statement, focusing on individual relationships, feeling included
TYPOLOGIES	In-group collectivism, affiliation, Institutional collectivism
THEMES	Culture, motivation

QUESTION NO	7
PRELIMINARY CODING	No gender issue, less female executives, sexist boss
FINAL CODING	No gender issue, less female executives, sexist boss
TYPOLOGIES	Gender
THEMES	Culture

QUESTION NO	8
PRELIMINARY CODING	Breaking the work down in a systematic way, deadlines, sharing, using others' experiences, treating myself, just do it, procrastinating
FINAL CODING	Breaking the work down systematically, deadlines, sharing, using others' experiences, short wins, just do it, procrastinating
TYPOLOGIES	Achievement, performance orientation, future orientation
THEMES	Motivation and culture

QUESTION NO	9
PRELIMINARY CODING	Based on personality not nationality
FINAL CODING	Based on personality not nationality
TYPES	Multi-nationality
THEMES	Motivation, culture

QUESTION NO	10
PRELIMINARY CODING	Permanent contract, new challenges, trainings, establishing learning environment, reducing bureaucracy, more flexibility, new ideas, establishing an efficient performance system, fairness, respect, PSM, having a good supervisor
FINAL CODING	Permanent contract, new challenges, establishing learning environment, reducing bureaucracy, more flexibility, new ideas, establishing an efficient performance system, fairness, respect, PSM, having a good supervisor
TYPES	Non-monetary tools
THEMES	Motivation

APPENDIX K: CODING of the OBSERVATIONS

WTO

QUESTION NO	1
PRELIMINARY CODING	Security, technology, art, disable-friendly, meeting rooms, social areas
FINAL CODING	Security, technology, art, social responsibility, meeting rooms, sociability
TYPESOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	2
PRELIMINARY CODING	Separate, bigger and special furnished rooms; printers; secretaries
FINAL CODING	Status perquisites
TYPESOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	3
PRELIMINARY CODING	Suit, tie, jacket and skirt (directors and staff attending a meeting), smart casual clothing
FINAL CODING	Business formal attire (directors and staff attending a meeting), smart casual clothing
TYPESOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	4
PRELIMINARY CODING	One or two persons, or three to four inters, in a room; enclosed offices
FINAL CODING	Individual and shared rooms, enclosed offices
TYPESOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	5
PRELIMINARY CODING	Open door policy, email, phone, meetings, friendly and active interaction
FINAL CODING	Open door policy, verbal and non-verbal communication, friendly environment
TYPESOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	6
PRELIMINARY CODING	Discussion, consensus, coordination, conciliation
FINAL CODING	Facilitator, coordination, conciliation
TYPOLOGIES	Organizational structure
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	7
PRELIMINARY CODING	Logo, posters, photos, statues, justice, peace, trade, agriculture, industry, artistic works, social and economic welfare messages
FINAL CODING	Logo, posters, artworks
TYPOLOGIES	Symbol, values
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	8
PRELIMINARY CODING	English (daily), French (salute), global trade lingo
FINAL CODING	English (daily), French (salute), global trade lingo
TYPOLOGIES	Language
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	9
PRELIMINARY CODING	Four coffee breaks
FINAL CODING	Four coffee breaks
TYPOLOGIES	Ritual
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	10
PRELIMINARY CODING	Two-hours lunch
FINAL CODING	Two-hours lunch
TYPOLOGIES	Ritual
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	11
PRELIMINARY CODING	Discussion work issues at 2 nd and 4 th coffee breaks
FINAL CODING	Discussion work issues at 2 nd and 4 th coffee breaks
TYPOLOGIES	Ritual
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	12
PRELIMINARY CODING	Sense of belonging, financial and facility opportunities, compromise, statues, paintings
FINAL CODING	Sense of belonging, benefits, compromise, statues, paintings
TYPOLOGIES	Values, job satisfaction
THEMES	Organization culture

UNCTAD

QUESTION NO	1
PRELIMINARY CODING	Security, technology, art, disability friendly, meeting rooms, social areas, peacocks
FINAL CODING	Security, technology, art, social responsibility, meeting rooms, sociability
TYPOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	2
PRELIMINARY CODING	Separate, bigger and special furnished rooms; printers; secretaries
FINAL CODING	Status perquisites
TYPOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	3
PRELIMINARY CODING	Business formal attire (directors and staff attending in a forum or a meeting), smart casual clothing, old age staff have daily shaves
FINAL CODING	Business formal attire (directors and staff attending in a forum or a meeting), smart casual clothing
TYPOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	4
PRELIMINARY CODING	One or two persons, or three to four inters, in a room; enclosed offices
FINAL CODING	Individual and shared rooms, enclosed offices
TYPOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture
NO	5
QUESTION	How do the staff interact?
PRELIMINARY CODING	Close door policy, email, phone, limited interaction, unable to mesh with current staff

FINAL CODING	Close door policy, nonverbal communication, limited interaction, work-oriented staff, unable to mesh with current staff
TYPOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	6
PRELIMINARY CODING	Active involvement of intranet system, weekly meetings, less verbal feedback, publications, expert meetings
FINAL CODING	Active involvement of intranet system, mechanic work approach, products
TYPOLOGIES	Organizational structure
THEMES	Organization culture

NO	7
PRELIMINARY CODING	Logo, publications
FINAL CODING	Logo, publications
TYPOLOGIES	Symbol, values
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	8
PRELIMINARY CODING	English (daily), French (salute), special terms, acronyms
FINAL CODING	English (daily), French (salute), special terms, acronyms
TYPOLOGIES	Language
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	9
PRELIMINARY CODING	Four coffee breaks
FINAL CODING	Four coffee breaks
TYPOLOGIES	Ritual
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	10
PRELIMINARY CODING	Two-hours lunch
FINAL CODING	Two-hours lunch
TYPOLOGIES	Ritual
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	11
PRELIMINARY CODING	Discussion of work issues only at 2nd coffee break
FINAL CODING	Discussion of work issues only at 2nd coffee break
TYPOLOGIES	Ritual
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	12
PRELIMINARY CODING	Separation of work and social issues, products, individual progress, limited teamwork, close door policy
FINAL CODING	Separation of work and social issues, products, solo fliers, close door policy
TYPOLOGIES	Values, job satisfaction
THEMES	Organization culture

ITC

QUESTION NO	1
PRELIMINARY CODING	Security, modern sociability
FINAL CODING	Security, modern sociability
TYPOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	2
PRELIMINARY CODING	Special parking place, separate and special furnished rooms, printers, secretaries
FINAL CODING	Status perquisites
TYPOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	3
PRELIMINARY CODING	Business formal attire (directors and staff attending in a meeting), smart casual clothing, informal dress day
FINAL CODING	Business formal attire (directors and staff attending in a meeting), smart casual clothing, informal dress day
TYPOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	4
PRELIMINARY CODING	One or two-three persons, or four to five inters in a room; enclosed offices
FINAL CODING	Individual and shared rooms, enclosed offices

TYPOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture
QUESTION NO	5
PRELIMINARY CODING	Open door policy, email, phone, face to face meeting, group interaction, knowledge result base environment, establishing a consensus, finding common ground, listening to opinions
FINAL CODING	Open door policy, verbal and nonverbal communication, group interaction, knowledge result base environment, establishing a consensus, finding common ground, listening to opinions
TYPOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	6
PRELIMINARY CODING	Active involvement of intranet system, flexible working system, creating awareness, identifying current knowledge level of the workforce, establishing consensus, developing an action plan
FINAL CODING	Active involvement of intranet system, flexible working system, creating awareness, identifying current knowledge level of the workforce, establishing consensus, developing an action plan
TYPOLOGIES	Organizational structure
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	7
PRELIMINARY CODING	Logo, poster, slogan
FINAL CODING	Logo, poster, slogan
TYPOLOGIES	Symbol, values
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	8
PRELIMINARY CODING	English (main), French (some), special terms, acronyms
FINAL CODING	English (main), French (some), special terms, acronyms
TYPOLOGIES	Language
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	9
PRELIMINARY CODING	Two coffee breaks
FINAL CODING	Two coffee breaks
TYPOLOGIES	Ritual
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	10
PRELIMINARY CODING	Two-hours lunch
FINAL CODING	Two-hours lunch
TYPOLOGIES	Ritual
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	11
PRELIMINARY CODING	Discussion of work issues at morning coffee break
FINAL CODING	Discussion of work issues at morning coffee break
TYPOLOGIES	Ritual
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	12
PRELIMINARY CODING	Flexible; collaborative; knowledge, trust and result based; encouraging participation; individual respect
FINAL CODING	Flexible; collaborative; knowledge, trust and result based; encouraging participation; individual respect
TYPOLOGIES	Values, job satisfaction
THEMES	Organization culture

WHO

QUESTION NO	1
PRELIMINARY CODING	Security, smoke-free zone, picture exhibition, paintings, disable-friendly, meeting rooms, social areas, meditation room, medical room, break room
FINAL CODING	Security, art, social responsibility, meeting rooms, sociability
TYPOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	2
PRELIMINARY CODING	Special parking place, separate and special furnished rooms, printers, secretaries
FINAL CODING	Status perquisites
TYPOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	3
PRELIMINARY CODING	Business formal attire and daily shave (coordinators and above), smart casual clothing
FINAL CODING	Business formal attire and daily shave (coordinators and above), smart casual clothing
TYPESOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	4
PRELIMINARY CODING	Individual and shared rooms, enclosed and open offices
FINAL CODING	Enclosed and open offices
TYPESOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	5
PRELIMINARY CODING	Open door and office policy, email, panels, weekly meetings, limited interaction, relaxed/warm and friendly meeting environment, domination of a group
FINAL CODING	Open door and office policy, non-verbal communication, limited interaction, relaxed/warm and friendly meeting environment, domination of a group
TYPESOLOGIES	Organization climate
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	6
PRELIMINARY CODING	Active involvement of intranet system, weekly meeting, less verbal feedback, feeling excluded, sharing information, increasing awareness
FINAL CODING	Active involvement of intranet system, weekly meeting, less verbal feedback, feeling excluded, sharing information, increasing awareness
TYPESOLOGIES	Organizational structure
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	7
PRELIMINARY CODING	Logo, posters, exhibitions, posts, slogans, fliers, hand-sterilization machines, free preservatives
FINAL CODING	Logo, posters, exhibitions, posts, slogans, fliers, hand-sterilization machines, free preservatives
TYPESOLOGIES	Symbol, values
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	8
PRELIMINARY CODING	English (daily), French (salute), disease names, acronyms
FINAL CODING	English (daily), French (salute), disease names, acronyms
TYPOLOGIES	Language
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	9
PRELIMINARY CODING	Four coffee breaks
FINAL CODING	Four coffee breaks
TYPOLOGIES	Ritual
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	10
PRELIMINARY CODING	1.5-hours lunch-break
FINAL CODING	1.5-hours lunch-break
TYPOLOGIES	Ritual
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	11
PRELIMINARY CODING	Discussion of work issues at 2 nd coffee break, participating lunch seminars
FINAL CODING	Discussion of work issues only at 2 nd coffee break
TYPOLOGIES	Ritual
THEMES	Organization culture

QUESTION NO	12
PRELIMINARY CODING	Health-centric considerations, exhibition and paintings, number of windows, professional working environment, awareness
FINAL CODING	Health-centric considerations, art, number of windows, professional working environment, and awareness
TYPOLOGIES	Values, job satisfaction
THEMES	Organization culture

REFERENCES

- Adams, J.S. (1963) Toward an Understanding of Inequity, *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, Vol.67, No.5, pp. 422-436.
- Adams, J.S. (1965) Inequity in Social Exchange. In Berkowitz L. (ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* Vol.2, New York: Academic Press.
- Adler, S. (1977) Maslow's Need Hierarchy and the Adjustment of Immigrants. *International Migration Review*, 11(4), pp. 444-451.
- Adorno, T.W. (1976) 'On the logic of the Social Science'. In T.W. Adorno, H. Albert, R. Dahrendorf, J. Habermas, H. Pilot and K.R. Popper, *The Positivist Dispute in German Sociology*, London: Heinemann.
- Ainslie, G. (1992). *Picoeconomics: the strategic interaction of successive motivational states within the person*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Albert, K.D., Mills, J, and Weatherbee, T. (2005) Maslow: man interrupted: reading management theory in context, *Management Decision*, Vol. 43 Iss: 10, pp.1375 – 1395.
- Alderfer, C. P. (1969) An Empirical Test of a New Theory of Human Needs. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 4, pp.142-175.
- Alderfer, C. P. (1972) *Existence, Relatedness, and Growth; Human Needs in Organizational Settings*, New York: Free Press.
- Altheide, D.L. (1987) Ethnographic Content Analysis, *Qualitative Sociology*, 10 (1), pp.65-77.
- Alvesson, Mats and Kaj Skoldberg, (2009) *Reflexive Methodology*, 2nd ed. London: Sage Publications.
- Anderson, J. (2000) The "Third Generation" of the Frankfurt School, *Intellectual History Newsletter*, 22, pp.31-57.
- Ang, S., Dyne L.V., Koh, C., Ng, Y.K., Templer, K.J., Tay, C. and Chandrasekar, A. (2007) Cultural Intelligence: Its Measurement and Effects on Cultural Judgment and Decision Making, Cultural Adaptation and Task Performance. *Management and Organization Review*, 3, 3, pp.335-371.
- Annan, K. (1998) *Report on the Work of Organization*. New York: United Nations Secretariat.
- Annan, K. (1999) *United Nations Competencies for the Future*. New York: United Nations Secretariat.

Annan, K. (2000) *The Role of United Nations in the 21st Century*. New York: United Nations Department of Public Information.

Argyris, C. (1964) *Integrating the Individual and the Organization*. New York: Wiley.

Aristotle, (2000) *Nicomachean Ethics*, [e-book], translated and edited by Roger Crisp, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Available at <http://catdir.loc.gov/catdir/samples/cam032/99036947.pdf>. [Accessed 05 January 2015]

Aroni R., Goeman D., Stewart K., Sawyer S., Abramson M. & Thein F. (1999) *Concepts of Rigour: When Methodological, Clinical and Ethical Issues Intersect*, AQR Conference Melbourne July 6-8. Available at <http://www.latrobe.edu/www/aqr/offer/papers/RAoni.htm>, [Accessed 14 August 2015]

Atkinson, J. W., Heyns, R. W., and Veroff, J. (1954) The effect of experimental arousal of the affiliation motive on thematic apperception. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 49, pp.405-410.

Atkinson, J.W. (1958) Towards Experimental Analysis of Human Motivation In Terms of Motives, Expectancies, and Incentives. In J. W. Atkinson (Ed.), *Motives in fantasy, action, and society*, Princeton, NJ: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc.

Audi, R. (General ed.) (1999) *The Cambridge Dictionary of Philosophy*, 2nd edn. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Babbage, Charles (1835). *On the Economy of Machinery and Manufactures*, 4th edn. London: Charles Knight.

Bailey, C.A. (2007) *A Guide to Qualitative Field Research*, 2nd edn., California: Pine Forge Press.

Bailey, A. (2008) Let's tell you a story: Use of Vignette in Focus Group Discussions on HIV/AIDS among migrants and mobile men in Goa, India, in Liamputtong P. (ed.), *Doing cross-cultural research Ethical and Methodological Perspectives* (pp.253-264), Dordrecht: Springer.

Bandura, A. (1986) *Social Foundations of Thought and Action: A Social Cognitive Theory*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura, A. (1999) Social Cognitive Theory: An Agentic Perspective, *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 2, pp.21-41.

Bannock, G., Baxter, R.E. and Davis, E. (1998) *The Penguin Dictionary of Economics*, 6th edn. London: Penguin Books.

Barbour, R. (2007) *Doing Focus Group*, London: Sage Publications.

- Barnett, M. and Finnemore, M. (2004) *Rules for the World: International Organizations in Global Politics*. New York: Cornell University Press.
- Bartsch, V., Ebers, M., Maurer, I. (2013) Learning in Project-Based Organizations: The Role of Project Teams' Social Capital for Overcoming Barriers to Learning. *International Journal of Project Management* Vol. 31, pp. 239-251.
- Bass, B.M. (1985) *Leadership and Performance beyond Expectations*. New York: Free Press.
- Bass, B.M. (1990). From Transactional to Transformational Leadership: Learning to Share the Vision, *Organizational Dynamics*, 18, pp.19-31.
- Bass, B.M. (1997) Does the transactional–transformational leadership paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries? *American Psychologist*, Vol.52, No.2, pp.130-139.
- Bass, B.M. (1998) *Transformational Leadership: Industrial, Military and Educational Impact*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Bauer, M.W. and Knill, C. (2007) Management Reforms in International Organizations, *Public Administration*, Vol.86, No.2, pp.591-618.
- Beer, M. (1966) *Leadership, Employee Needs and Motivation*. Ohio: Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State University.
- Bentham, J. (1789) *An Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation*. [E-book]. Available through <https://ebooks.adelaide.edu.au/b/bentham/jeremy/morals/> [Accessed 23 January 2015]
- Berlin, I. (2013) *Against the Current*. New Jersey: Princeton University Press.
- Biermann, F. and Siebenhuner, B. (2009) *Managers of Global Change: The Influence of International Environmental Bureaucracies*, Cambridge: MIT press.
- Biget, A.S. (2012) Profiles of Public Service-Motivated Civil Servants: Evidence from a Multicultural Country. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 35:1, pp.5-18.
- Biget, A.S., Varone, F., Giauque, D., Ritz, A. (2010) Motivating Employees of the Public Sector: Does Public Service Motivation Matter? *International Public Management Journal*, Vol. 13, Iss. 3, pp. 213-246.
- Biget, A.S., Hafliger, U. and Hug, S. (2013) The Values of Staff in International Organizations. in Bob Reinalda, (ed.) *Routledge Handbook of International Organizations*. Oxon: Routledge, pp. 270-283.
- Blai, B. Jr. (1962) An Occupational Study of Job Satisfaction and Need Satisfaction. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, 32, pp.383-388.

- Blondel, J. (1985) *Political Science*. In Kuper, A & Kuper, J (eds), in 'The Social Science Encyclopedia', London: Routledge.
- Blumer, H. (1969) *Symbolic Interactionism: Perspective and Method*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- Boas, F. (1896) The Limitations of the Comparative Method of Anthropology. *Science* 4, pp. 901-908.
- Boas, F. (1959) Introduction. In *Patterns of Culture*. Benedict, R. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Bocock, R. (1974) *Ritual in Industrial Society*. London: Allen & Unwin.
- Bois, C.D. (1971) General and Theoretical. *American Anthropologist, New Series, Vol.73, No.6*, pp.1291-1293.
- Bourdieu, P. (1984) *Distinction*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Bowie, N. (2000) A Kantian Theory of Leadership. *The Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 21/4, pp.185-193.
- Bradbury, H., Mirvis P., Neilsen E. and Pasmore W. (2013), In P. Reason & H. Bradbury (Eds.), *Handbook of Action Research*, 2st edn., London: SAGE Publications, pp. 77–92.
- Brannen, M.Y. (2003) *What is Culture and Why Does It Matter*. In Boyacigiller, N.A., Goodman, R.A. and Philips, M.E. (eds.), *Crossing Cultures*, London: Routledge.
- Briggs, C. (1986) *Learning How to Ask: A Sociolinguistic Appraisal of the Role of the Interview in Social Science Research*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Brown, E. and Trevino, L.K. (2006) Ethical Leadership: A Review and Future Directions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17, pp. 595-616.
- Bryant. A and Charmaz, K. (eds) (2007) *The Sage Handbook of Grounded Theory*, Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, pp 1-28.
- Bryman, A. (2004) *Social Research Methods*, 2nd edn, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, A. and Bell, E. (2011) *Business Research Methods*, 3rd Edn. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Buelens, M. and Broeck, H.V. (2007) An Analysis of Differences in Work Motivation between Public and Private Sector Organizations. *Public Administration Review, January-February*, pp.65-74.
- Bruner, J.S. and Tagiuri, R. (1954) The Perception of People. In G. Lindzey (Ed.), *Handbook of Social Psychology, Vol.2*, Cambridge, Mass: Addison Wesley.
- Burns, J. M. (1978) *Leadership*. New York: Harper Row.

- Campbell, J. L. and Pedersen, O. K. (eds) (2001) *The Rise of Neoliberalism and Institutional Analysis*, Princeton, NJ, Princeton University Press.
- Campanella, T. (1602/2007) *The City of the Sun*, New York: Cosimo Inc.
- Caputo, J. D (1999) *Heidegger*. In Critchley S. & Schroeder W.R. (eds.), *A Companion to Continental Philosophy*, Oxford: Blackwell.
- Carrin, G.J. (2006) Rousseau's Social Contract: Contracting Ahead of Its Time?, *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 84(11), pp.916-918.
- Carlyle, T. (1841) *On Heroes, Hero-Worship and The Heroic In History*. Boston: Adams.
- Carrol, D.T. (1983) A Disappointing Search for Excellence. *Harvard Business Review*, 61, pp.78-88.
- Casimir, G. and Keats, D. (1996) The effects of work environment and in-group membership on the leadership preferences of Anglo-Australians and Chinese Australians, *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 27(4), pp.436–457.
- Cawthon, D.L. (1996) Leadership: The Great Man Theory Revisited. *Business Horizons*, May-June, pp.1-4.
- Chappell, T. (2012) Varieties of knowledge in Plato and Aristotle. *Topoi*, 31(2), pp.175-190.
- Charmaz, K. (2014) *Constructing Grounded Theory*, 2nd edn. London: Sage Publications.
- Checkel, J., & Katzenstein, P. (2009) *European Identity*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Chen, M. (1994) Sun Tzu's Strategic Thinking and Contemporary Business. *Business Horizons*, March-April, pp. 42-48.
- Chen, X.P., Liu, D., and Portnoy, R. (2012) a Multilevel Investigation of Motivational Cultural Intelligence, Organizational Diversity Climate and Cultural Sales: Evidence from U.S. Real Estate Firms. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97, 1, pp.93-106.
- Chenot, D., Boutakidis, I. and Amy D. Benton, (2014) Equity and Fairness Perceptions in The Child Welfare Workforce. *Children and Youth Services Review* Volume 44, September, pp. 400–406
- Chevrier, S. (2003) Cross-cultural management in multinational project groups, *Journal of World Business*, 38. Pp.141-149.
- Chodorow, N. (1978) *The reproduction of mothering*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

- Christiansen, B. and Sezerel, H. (2013) Diversity Management in Transcultural Organizations. *Global Business Perspective*, 1:132, pp.132-143.
- Cinpoes, R. (2008) From national identity to European identity. *Journal of Identity and Migration Studies*, 2(1), pp.3-14.
- Cohen, Abner (1974) *Two Dimensional Man*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Cohen-Charash, Y. and Spector P. (2001) The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 86 (2), pp. 278–321.
- Coicaud, J.M. (2001) International Organizations, the Evaluation of International Politics and Legitimacy. In J.M.Coicaud and V.Heiskanen, *The Legitimacy of International Organizations*. Tokyo: United Nations University Press.
- Cole, R. (1971) *Japanese Blue Collar: The Changing Tradition*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Collis, J. and Roger, H. (2003) *Business Research*, 2nd edn. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Colquitt, J., Conlon, D., M. Wesson and C. Porter, K. Ng (2001) Justice at the millennium: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86 (3), pp. 425–445.
- Comtè, A. (1865) *A General View of Positivism*. Trans. by J.H. Bridges, London: Trubner and Co.
- Conger, J.A. (2011) Charismatic Leadership. In Bryman, A., Collinson, D., Grint, K., Jackson, B. and Uhl-Bien, M. (eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Leadership*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Cook, K.E. (2005) Using Critical Ethnography to Explore Issues in Health Promotion, *Qualitative Health Research*, Vol. 15 No.1, pp.129-136.
- Craig, D.V. (2009) *Action Research Essentials*, San Francisco: John Wiley Sons.
- Creswell, J.W. (2013) *Qualitative Inquiry Research Design*, 3rd edn. California: Sage Publications.
- Crotty, M. (1989) *The Foundations of Social Research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Cyert, R.M., and March, J.G. (1963) *A Behavioural Theory of The Firm*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Dahrendorf, Ralf, (1985) *Social Science*, In Kuper, A & Kuper, J (eds), 'The Social Science Encyclopedia', London: Routledge.
- Darwin, C. (1859) *The Origin of Species*, London: John Murray.

- Dassbach, C.H.A. (1991) The Origins of Fordism: The Introduction of Mass Production and The Five-Dollar Wage. *Critical Sociology*, 18 (10), pp.77-90.
- Davies, J.C. (1991) Maslow and Theory of Political Development: Getting to Fundamentals. *Political Psychology*, Vol. 12, No. 3 (Sep), pp. 389-420.
- Davies, C.A. (2008) *Reflexive Ethnography*, 2nd edn., Oxon: Routledge.
- Deal, T.E. and Kennedy, A.A. (1999) *The New Corporate Cultures: Revitalizing the Workplace After Downsizing, Mergers and Reengineering*. Reading: MA: Perseus Books.
- Deegan, M.J. (2001) *The Chicago School of Ethnography*, in P. Atkinson, A. Coffey, S. Delamont, J. Lofland and L. Lofland (eds.), (pp. 11–25), *Handbook of Ethnography*, London: Sage.
- Deci, E.L. (1975) *Intrinsic Motivation*. New York: Plenum.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985) Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behavior. New York: Plenum.
- Deci, E. L., Connell, J.P. and Ryan, R. M. (1989) Self-Determination in a Work Organization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol.4, pp. 580-590.
- Deci, E. L., Ryan, R. M. and Koestner, R. (1999) A Meta-Analytic Review of Experiments Examining the Effects of Extrinsic Rewards on Intrinsic Motivation. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol.125, no.6, pp.627-668.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000) The “what” and “why” of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11, pp.227-268.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2008) Self Determination Theory: A Macrotheory of Human Motivation Development and Health, *Canadian Psychology*, Vol.49, No.3, pp.182-185.
- Denzin, N.K., & Lincoln, Y.S. (2005) Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research*, 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Diaz-Saenz, H.R. (2011) Transformational Leadership. In Bryman, A., Collinson, D., Grint, K., Jackson, B. and Uhl-Bien, M. (eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Leadership*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Doeveryen, V.V. (2011) Rethinking Good Governance, *Public Integrity*, 13:4, pp.301-318.
- Dollard, J., & Miller, N. E. (1950). *Personality and psychotherapy: An analysis in terms of learning, thinking, and culture*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Donovan, J.J. (2001) Work Motivation. In Anderson, N., Ones D.S., Sinangil, H.K. and Viswesvaran C. (eds.) *Handbook of Industrial Work and Organizational Psychology Vol.2*, London: Sage Publications, pp.53-76.
- Dore, R. (1973) *British Factory-Japanese Factory: The Origins of National Diversity in Industrial Relations*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Dorfman, P.W. and Howell, J.P. (1988) Dimensions of National Culture and Effective Leadership Patterns: Hofstede Revisited, in: R.N. Farmer and E.G. McGoun (Eds.), *Advances in International Comparative Management, Vol. 3*, JAI Press: Greenwich, CT, pp.127–150.
- Dorfman, P.W. and House, R.J. (2004) Cultural Influences on Organizational Leadership. In House, R. J, Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W. and Gupta, V., (eds.), *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies*, California: SAGE Publications.
- Dubois, A. and Gadde, L.E. (2002) Systematic Combining: An Abductive Approach to Case Research, *Journal of Business Research*, 55, pp.553-560.
- Dundon, T. and Ryan, P. (2010) Interviewing Reluctant Respondents: Strikes, Henchmen, and Gaelic Games, *Organizational Research Methods*, 13, 3, pp.562-581.
- Durkheim, E. (1912/1954). The elementary forms of religious life. Glencoe, IL: Free Press.
- Durkheim, E. (1933) *The Division of Labour in Society*. Trans. by W.D. Halls, New York: Free Press.
- Dwivedula, R. and Bredillet, C.N. (2010) Profiling Work Motivation of Project Workers. *International Journal of Project Management*, 28, pp.158-165.
- Earley, P.C. (1994) 'Self or group? Cultural effects of training on self-efficacy and performance, *Administrative Science Quarterly* 39(1), pp.89–117.
- Earley, P. C., & Gibson, C. B. (2002) *Multinational Work Teams: A New Perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Earley, P.C. (2003) Redefining Interactions across Cultures and Organizations: Moving Forward with Cultural Intelligence. *Organizational Behaviour*, Vol.24, pp.271-299.
- Earley, P.C. and Ang, S. (2003) *Cultural Intelligence: An Analysis of Individual Interactions across Cultures*. Palo Alto: Stanford University Press.
- Easton, G. (2010) Critical Realism in Case Study Research, *Industrial Marketing Management* 39, pp.118–128.

- Eden, D. and Leviatan, U. (1975) Implicit Leadership Theory as A Determinant of the Factor Structure Underlying Supervisory Behavior Scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol.60, No.6, pp.736-741.
- Edgar, A. and Sedwick, P. (eds.) (1999) *Key Concepts in Cultural Theory*. London: Routledge.
- Eisenberg, R., and Cameron, J. (1996) Detrimental Effects of Reward: Reality or Myth. *American Psychologist*, 51, pp.1153-1166.
- Emmerik, H.V., Gardner, W.L., Wendt, H. and Fischer, D. (2010) Associations of Culture and Personality with McClelland's Motives: A Cross-Cultural Study of Managers in 24 Countries. *Group Organization Management*, 35(3), pp.329-367.
- Engeser, S., Rheinberg, F. and Moller, M. (2009) Achievement Motive Imagery in German Schoolbooks: A Pilot Study Testing McClelland's Hypothesis, *Journal of Research in Personality* (43), pp.110-113.
- Epitropaki, O., Sy, T., Martin, R., Quon, S.T. and Topakas, A. (2013) Implicit Leadership and Followership Theories 'in the wild': Taking Stock of Information-Processing Approaches to Leadership and Followership in Organizational Settings. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24, pp. 858-881.
- Erez, M. and Earley, P.C. (1987) Comparative Analysis of Goal Setting Strategies Across Cultures, *Journal of Applied Psychology* 72(4), pp.658–665.
- Eriksen, T.H. and Nielsen, F.S. (2001) *A History of Anthropology*, London: Pluto Press.
- Erickson, F. (2011) *A History of Qualitative Inquiry in Social and Educational Research*, in Norman K. Denzin and Yvonna S.Lincoln (eds), *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Research*, (pp. 43-57), California: SAGE Publications.
- Eylon, D. and Au, K.Y. (1999) Exploring empowerment cross-cultural differences along the power distance dimension, *International Journal of Intercultural Relations* 23(3), pp.373–385.
- Fang, T. (2012) Yin Yang: A New Perspective on Culture. *Management and Organizational Review*, 8:1, pp.25-50.
- Fayol, H. (1916) Administration industrielle et générale', *Bulletin de la Société de l'Industrie Minérale, fifth series, Vol. 10 No. 3*, pp. 5-162.
- Fetterman, D.M. (1989) *Ethnography: Step by Step*, London: Sage Publications.
- Fiedler, F.E. (1967) *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Fiedler, F.E. (1993) The Leadership Situation and The Black Box in Contingency Theories. In Chemers, M.M. and Ayman, R. (eds), *Leadership Theory and Research: Perspectives and Directions*. New York: Academic Press.
- Fiedler, F. E. and Garcia, J. E. (1987) *Improving Leadership Effectiveness: Cognitive Resources and Organizational Performance*. New York: Wiley.
- Fitzroy, F. R and Kraft, K. (1987) Cooperation, Productivity, and Profit Sharing *The Quarterly Journal of Economics* 102 (1), pp.23-35.
- Ford, H. (1924) *My Life and Work*. New York: Doubleday, Page & Company.
- Foucault, M. (1977) *Discipline and Punishment: The Birth of the Prison*. Trans. Alan Sheridan. New York: Vintage Books.
- Foucault, M. (1980) *Power/Knowledge*, ed, C.Gordon. Brighton:Harvester.
- Fourier, C. (1829/1971) *Design for Utopia, Selected Writings*. New York: Schocken.
- Fowler, F.J. Jr. (2014) *Survey Research Methods*, 5th edn., Boston: Sage Publications.
- Fox, Robin, (1985) *Culture*. In Kuper, A & Kuper, J (eds), *The Social Science Encyclopedia*, London: Routledge.
- French, E.G. (1955) Some Characteristics of Achievement Motivation. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 50, pp.232-236.
- French, E.G. (1956) Motivation as a Variable in Work-Partner Selection. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 53, pp.96-99.
- Freud, S. (1930) *Civilization and Its Discontents*. London: Hogarth Press.
- Frey, B.S. and Gallus, J. (2015) *Why International Organizations Give and Receive Awards*. 8th Annual Conference on the Political Economy of International Organizations, February 12-14, Hertie School of Governance, Berlin.
- Fromm, E. (1941) *Escape from Freedom*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- FRONTERA (2007) *Motivating Staff and Volunteers Working in NGOs in the South*. Available from www.peopleinaid.org/resources/publications.aspx. Accessed 09.07.2015
- Gadamer, H.G., (2006) *Theory, Culture & Society*, SAGE, Vol. 23(1), pp. 29–56.
- Gadamer, H.G., (2008) *Philosophical Hermeneutics*, trans. & ed. D.E Linge, California: University of California Press.
- Galie, P.J. and Bopst, C. (2006) Machiavelli & Modern Business: Realist Thought in Contemporary Corporate Leadership Manuals. *Journal of Business Ethics* May, Volume 65, Issue 3, pp 235-250.

- Gallstedt, M. (2003) Working Conditions in Projects: Perceptions of Stress and Motivation among Project Team Members and Project Managers. *International Journal of Project Management* 21, pp.449-455.
- Galton, F (1883) *Inquiries into Human Faculty and Its Development*. London: J.M. Dent & Company.
- Galton, F. (1892) *Hereditary Genius: An inquiry into Its Laws and Consequences*. 2nd Edn., New York: MacMillan and CO. First Published in 1869.
- Gambrel, Patrick A and Cianci, Rebecca (2003) Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs: Does It Apply In A Collectivist Culture. *Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship*; Apr, 8, 2, pp.143-161.
- Gantt, H.L. (1910) *Works, Wages and Profits*. New York: The Engineering Magazine.
- Geertz, C. (1973) *The Interpretation of Cultures*. New York: Basic Books, Inc.
- Georgakais, D, (2013) *What Is Happening to the Staff of the European Institutions? A Cross-Disciplinary View*. In B. Reinalda, (ed.) *Routledge Handbook of International Organization*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Gilbreth, Frank B. and Gilbreth, Lillian M. (1916) The Three Position Plan Of Promotion. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Vol. 65, Personnel and Employment Problems in Industrial Management (May), pp. 289-296.
- Gilbreth, Frank B. and Gilbreth, Lillian M. (1917) Applied Motion Study, in Spriegel, W. and Myers, C. (Eds.), *The Writings of the Gilbreths*, Richard Irwin, Homewood, IL, pp.207-73.
- Gilligan, C. (1982) *In a different voice: Psychological theory and women's development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Glaser, B. & Strauss, A. (1967) *The Discovery of Grounded Theory*. New York: Alpine.
- Glesne C. (2011) *Becoming Qualitative Researchers*, 4th edn. Boston: Pearson.
- Gobineau, A. De (1854/1915) *The Inequality of Human Races*. Trans. By A. Collins, London: William Heinemann.
- Goebel, B.L. and Brown, D.R. (1981) Age Differences in Motivation Related to Maslow's Need Hierarchy. *Developmental Psychology*, Vol.17, No.6, PP.809-815.
- Grogan, J. (2013) *Encountering America*. New York: HarperCollins Publishers.
- Goodman, R.A. (1968) On the Operability of the Maslow Need Hierarchy. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 6, pp.51-57.
- Gordon, P. (1994) Robert Owen, *The Quarterly Review of Education* (Paris, UNESCO: International Bureau of Education), vol. 24, no. 1/2, pp. 279–96

- Graham, M., and Messner, P. (1998) Principals and job satisfaction. *Journal of Educational Management*, 12(5), pp.196-202.
- Graham, Laurel (2000) "Lillian Gilbreth and the mental revolution at Macy's, 1925-1928", *Journal of Management History*, Vol. 6 Iss: 7, pp.285 – 305.
- Grams, W.C. and Rogers, W. (1990) Power and Personality: Effects of Machiavellianism, Need for Approval, and Motivation on Use of Influence Tactics. *The Journal of General Psychology*, Volume 117, Issue 1, pp.71-82.
- Grenfell, M. (2014) Introduction. In M. Grenfell (ed.), *Pierre Bourdieu Key Concepts*, 2nd Edn. London: Routledge.
- Griffeth, R. W., Logan, J.W.Jr. and Vecchio, R.P. (1989) Equity Theory and Interpersonal Attraction, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol.74, No.3, pp.394-401.
- Griffin, E. (2011) *A First Look at Communication Theory*. 8th ed. London: McGraw-Hill.
- Grint, K. (2011) A History of Leadership. In Bryman, A., Collinson, D., Grint, K., Jackson, B. and Uhl-Bien, M. (eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Leadership*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Grix, J. (2004). *The foundations of Research*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Grooms, J. (2013) *A Study of the Articulated Leadership Practices of Principals in Relation to the Literature on the Characteristics of High Performing Principals*. Seton Hall University Dissertations and Theses (ETDs). Paper 1930.
- Guba, E. G., and Lincoln, Y.S. (1986) But Is It Rigorous? Trustworthiness and Authenticity in Naturalistic Evaluation. In D. Williams (ed.), *Naturalistic Evaluation. New Directions for Evaluation*, No. 30. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Guba, E.G and Lincoln, Y.S. (1989) *Fourth Generation Evaluation*. London: Sage Publications.
- Guba, E.G and Lincoln, Y.S. (1994) Competing Paradigms in Qualitative Research, in N.Denzin, and Y.S Lincoln (eds), *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications. Pp.105-117.
- Gustavsen, B. (2001) Theory and Practice: The Mediating Discourse. In P. Reason & H. Bradbury (Eds.), *Handbook of Action Research*, London:SAGE, pp. 17–26.
- Gustavsen, B. (2008) Action Research, Practical Challenges and The Formation of Theory, *Sage Publications Volume 6(4)*, pp.421–437.
- Habermas, J. (1974) *Theory and Practice*. Trans. John Viertel. London: Heinemann.
- Haeckel, E. (1876) *The History of Creation*. Trans. by R. Lankester. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

- Hagerty, Michael R. (1999) Testing Maslow's hierarchy of needs: National quality-of-life across time. *Social Indicators Research*; Mar; 46, 3, pp.249-271.
- Hall, D.T. and Nougaim, K.E. (1968) An examination of Maslow's Need Hierarchy in an Organizational Setting. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 3, pp.12-35.
- Hamden-Turner, and C. Trompenaars, (2004) *Building Cross-Cultural Competence: How to create wealth from conflicting values*, 2nd ed. West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons.
- Hammersley, M. and Atkinson P. (2007) *Ethnography: Principles in Practice*, 3rd edn., New York: Routledge.
- Hanson, E.M. (2002) *Educational Administration and Organizational Behavior*, 5th ed. Old Tappan: Allyn and Bacon.
- Haque, M.S. (2004) *New Public Management: Origins, Dimensions and Critical Implications*. In K.K. Tummala (ed), *Public Administration and Public Policy*. Oxford: Eolss Publishers Ltd.
- Harris, M. (1968) *The Rise of Anthropological Theory: A History of Theories of Culture*. New York: T.Y. Crowell.
- Harris, M. (1979/2001) *Cultural Materialism*, New York: Altamira Press.
- Harris, P. (2001) Machiavelli, Political Marketing and Reinventing Government. *European Journal of Marketing*, 35, 9/10, pp.1136-1154.
- Hartog, D.N. and Belschak, F.D. (2012) Work Engagement and Machiavellianism in the Ethical Leadership Process. *Journal Business Ethics*, 107, pp.35-47.
- Haslam, S.A., Reicher, S.D. and Platow, M.J. (2011) *The New Psychology of Leadership*. East Sussex: Psychology Press.
- Hatch, E. (1973) *Theories of Man and Culture*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Hatcher, T. (2013) Robert Owen: A Historiographic Study of a Pioneer of Human Resource Development. *European Journal of Training and Development*, Vol. 37, Iss. 4, pp.414-431.
- Have P.T. (2004) *Understanding Qualitative Research and Ethnomethodology*, London: SAGE Publications.
- Heckhausen, H. (1967) *The Anatomy Achievement Motivation*. New York and London: Academic Press.
- Heffernan, M. and Dundon, T. (2016) Cross-level effects of high-performance work systems (HPWS) and employee well-being: the mediating effect of organisational justice, *Human Resource Management Journal*, 26, 2, pp.211-231.

- Heffernan, M., Harney, B., Cafferkey, K. and Dundon, T. (2016) Exploring the HRM-Performance Relationship: the Role of Creativity Climate and Strategy. *Employee Relations*, 38(3), pp.438-462.
- Heidegger, M. (1994) *Basic Questions of Philosophy: Selected Problems of Logic*, trans. R. Rojcewicz and A. Schuwer. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.
- Hendry, J. (2008) *An Introduction to Social Anthropology*, 2nd edn., Hampshire: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Heron, J., & Reason, P. (1997) A Participatory Inquiry Paradigm. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 3 (3), pp.274-294.
- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., Peterson, R., and Capwell, D. (1957) *Job Attitudes: Review of Research and Opinion*. Pittsburgh, PA: Psychological Service of Pittsburgh.
- Herzberg, F. (1959) *The Motivation to Work*, New York: Wiley.
- Herzberg, F. (1968) *Work and the Nature of Man*, London: Staples Press.
- Herzberg, Frederick (1987) One More Time: How Do You Motivate Employees? *Harvard Business Review*, 46 (1): pp. 53–62.
- Heylighen, F. (1992) A Cognitive-System Reconstruction of Maslow's Theory of Self-Actualization. *Behavioral Science*, Vol. 37, pp.39-57.
- Hobbes, T. (1651/1948) *Leviathan*, M.Oakeshott (ed.) Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Hofstede, G. (1980) Motivation, Leadership, and Organization: Do American Theories Apply Abroad. *Organizational Dynamics*, 9 (1), pp.42-63.
- Hofstede, G. (1987) The Applicability of McGregor's Theories in Southeast Asia. *Journal of Management Development*, 6, 3, pp.9-18.
- Hofstede, G. (2001) *Culture's consequences*, 2nd edn. London: Sage Publications. First edition published in 1980.
- Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G.J., and Minkov, M., (2010) *Cultures and Organizations*, 3d edn. New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing.
- Hollander, E.P. (1964) *Leaders, Groups and Influence*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Hollander, E.P. (1971) Style, Structure and Setting in Organizational Leadership. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol.16, No.1, pp.1-9.
- Hollander, E.P. (1995) Ethical Challenges in The Leader-Follower Relationship. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, Volume 5, Issue 1, pp.55-65.
- Hollander, E.P. and Offermann, L.R. (1990) Power and Leadership in Organizations. *American Psychologist*, Vol.45, No.2, pp.179-189.

- Holloway, I. and Wheeler, S. (1996) *Qualitative Research for Nurses*, Oxford: Blackwell Science.
- Honderich, T. (2005) *The Oxford Companion to Philosophy*, 2nd edn. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Honneth, A. (2004) A Social Pathology of Reason: On the Intellectual Legacy of Critical Theory, In Rush, F. (ed.), *The Cambridge Companion to Critical Theory*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Honneth, A. (2014) *The I In We*. Trans. by Joseph Ganahl, Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Horkheimer, M. (1972) *Critical Theory: Selected Essays*, New York: Continuum.
- House, R.J., Hanges, P.J., Ruiz-Quintanilla, S.A., Dorfman, P.W., Javidan, M., Dickson, M., Gupta, V. & 170 Country Co-investigators, (1999) 'Cultural Influences on Leadership and Organizations: Project GLOBE, in W. Mobley, J. Gessner, & V. Arnold (eds.), *Advances in Global Leadership*, vol. 1, pp.171-234, JAI Press, Stamford, CN.
- Marx's Historical Dialectic
- Horn, A.J. (2013) *Marx's Historical Dialectic*, Critique, Vol. 41, Iss. 4, pp.495-513.
- House, R. J, Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W. and Gupta, V., (2004) Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies. California: SAGE Publications.
- Howell, K.E. (2000) *Discovering the Limits of European Integration: Applying Grounded Theory*, New York: Nova Science Publishers.
- Howell, K.E (2004a) *Europeanization, European Integration and Financial Services*, New York: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Howell, K.E (2004b) *Positivism, Phenomenology and Paradigms of Inquiry: Investigating the Foundations of Methodological Approaches*. British Academy of Management. University of Leeds (Harrogate).
- Howell, K.E. (2009) Europeanization, Globalization and Domestication: Financial Services Regulation in the UK. *International Journal of Law and Management*, Vol.51, 5, pp.310-326.
- Howell, K.E. (2013) *An Introduction to the Philosophy of Methodology*, London: SAGE Publications.
- Howell, K. and Letza, S. (2000) Virtue, Virtú, Categorical Imperative and the Civic Constitution: Defining Corporate Governance. *Journal of Interdisciplinary Economics* January, 11, pp.95-104.

- Howell, K. E., and Annansingh, F. (2013) Knowledge Generation and Sharing in UK Universities: A Tale of Two Cultures? *International Journal of Information Management*, Volume 33, Issue 1, February, pp. 32–39.
- Hryniewiecka, C.B. (2011) Europeanization of Non-State Actors. In D. Armstrong, V. Bello, J. Gilson and D. Spini, *Civil Society and International Governance: The role of non-state actors in global and regional regulatory Frameworks*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Hsu, Shih-Yun, Woodside, A.G. and Marshall, R. (2013) Critical Tests of Multiple Theories of Cultures' Consequences, *Journal of Travel Research* 52(6) pp.679 –704.
- Huitt, W. (2007) Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. *Educational Psychology Interactive*. Valdosta, GA: Valdosta State University. Retrieved from, <http://www.edpsycinteractive.org/topics/regsys/maslow.html> Accessed 16 November 2014.
- Huizinga, G. (1970) *Maslow's Need Hierarchy in The Work Situation*. Groninger: Wolters.
- Hunt, J.W. (1981) Applying American Behavioral Science: Some Cross-Cultural Problems. *Organizational Dynamics*, Summer, pp.55-62.
- Hunt, J.W. (1994) The European Consultant: What Motivates and What De-motives? *Business Strategy Review*, Vol.5, No.1, pp.15-28.
- Javidan, M. (2004) Performance Orientation. In House, R. J, Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W. and Gupta, V., (eds.), *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies*, California: SAGE Publications.
- Jerome, N. (2013) Application of the Maslow's Hierarchy of Need Theory; Impacts and Implications on Organizational Culture, Human Resource and Employee's Performance. *International Journal of Business and Management Invention*, Vol2, Issue 3, pp.39-45.
- Jackson, S.L. (2012) *Research Methods and Statistics a Critical Approach*. Wadsworth: Cengage Learning.
- Johnson, J.P., Lenartowicz, T. and Apud, S. (2006) Cross Cultural Competence in International Business: Toward A Definition and A Model. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 37, pp.525-543.
- Jones, N.B. and Lloyd G.C. (2005) Does Herzberg's Motivation Theory Have Staying Power? *Journal of Management Development*, Vol.24 No. 10, pp.929-943.
- Jorgensen, D.L. (1989) *Participant Observation*, California: Sage Publications.
- Josselson, R. (2013) *Interviewing for Qualitative Inquiry*, New York: The Guilford Press.

- Jurkiewicz, C.L., Massey, T.K. and Brown, R.G. (1998) Motivation in Public and Private Organizations: A Comparative Study. *Public Productivity and Management Review*, 21(3), pp.230-350.
- Juroš, T.V. (2011) Reporting on the Issues of Research Rigour, *Revija Za Sociologiju* 41, 2, pp.161–184.
- Kakar, S. (1970) *Frederic Taylor: A Study in Personality and Innovation*, Massachusetts: MIT press.
- Kalberg, S. (2012) *Max Weber's Comparative-Historical Sociology Today*. Surrey: Ashgate Publishing Limited.
- Kant, I. (1964) *Groundwork of the Metaphysic of Morals*, trans. H. J. Paton. New York: Harper and Row Publishers.
- Kant, I (1995) On the Common Saying: This May Be True in Theory but It Does Not Apply in Practice, in H. Reiss (ed.), *Political Writings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kant, I. (1795/2006) *Toward Perpetual Peace and Other Writings on Politics, Peace and History*, trans. D.L. Colclasure. New Haven and London: Yale University Press.
- Kaur, A. (2013) Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory: Applications and Criticisms. *Global Journal of Management and Business Studies*, Volume 3, Number 10, pp.1061-1064.
- Keller, E. F. (1996) *Feminism and science*. In E. F. Keller & H. E. Longino (Eds.), *Feminism and Science*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press, pp. 28-40.
- Kenrick, D.T., Giskevicius, V., Neuberg, S.L. and Schaller M. (2010) Renovating the Pyramid of Needs Contemporary Extensions Built Upon Ancient Foundations. *Perspectives on Psychological Science May*, vol. 5 no. 3, pp.292-314
- Kessler, S.R., Bandelli, A.C., Spector, P.E., Borman, W.C., Nelson, C.E. and Penney, L.M. (2010) Re-Examining Machiavelli: A Three-Dimensional Model of Machiavellianism in the Workplace. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, Vol. 40, Iss. 8, pp.1868–1896,
- Keynes, J.M. (1936) *The General Theory of Employment, Interest and Money*. Snowball Publishing. Republished in 2012.
- Kincheloe, J. L., and Tobin, K. (2009) The Much Exaggerated Death of Positivism. *Cultural Studies of Science Education*, 4, pp.513–528.
- Kilicbay, M. (2005) Foreword, *Leviathan*, trans. S.Lim, Tenth edn. T. Hobbes, Istanbul: Yapi Kredi.
- Kirk, J., & Miller, M. L., (1986) *Reliability and Validity in Qualitative Research*. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.

- Kitzinger, J. (1994) The Methodology of Focus Groups: The Importance of Interaction between Research Participants, *Sociology of Health & Illness Vol. 16, No. 1*, pp.103-121.
- Kleingeld, P. (2006) Kant's Theory of Peace. In P.Guyer (ed.), *The Cambridge Companion to Kant and Modern Philosophy*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kluckhohn, C. (1951). *Values and value-orientations in the theory of action: An exploration in definition and classification*. In T. Parsons & E. Shils (Eds.), *toward a general theory of action* (pp.388-433). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Kluckhohn, F.R. and Strodtbeck, F.L., (1961) *Variations in Value Orientations*. Westport, CT: Greenwood.
- Knowles, G. (1969) The Achievement Motive and Education. *Educational Leadership, Dec, Vol. 27 Issue 3*, pp.311-317.
- Koç, H. and Topaloğlu, M. (2010) *Yönetim Bilimi*, Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.
- Koestner, R. and McClelland D. C. (1992) The Affiliation Motive, in Smith, C.P. (ed.) *Motivation and Personality: Handbook of Thematic Content Analysis*, Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Kohn, M.L., & Schooler, C. (1983) *Work and personality*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Koltko-Rivera, M.E. (2006) Rediscovering the Later Version of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs: Self-Transcendence and Opportunities for Theory, Research, and Unification. *Review of General Psychology, Vol. 10, No. 4*, pp. 302–317.
- Korman, A. (1974) *The psychology of motivation*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Kow, S. (2001) Maistre and Hobbes on Providential History and the English Civil War. *Clio, 30(3)*, pp.267-288.
- Krech et al. (1962) *The Individual in Society*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Krueger, R.A. (1994) *Focus Groups: A Practical Guide for Applied Research*, 2nd edn. California: Sage Publications.
- Kvale, S. (1996) *Interviews*, California: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Kucukaksoy, I. (2011) Adam Smith's Conceptual Contributions to International Economics: Based on the Wealth of Nations. *Business and Economic Horizons, Vol 4, Issue 1*, pp.108-119.
- Kuhn, Thomas, S., (1970) *The Structure of Scientific Revolution*, 2nd edn. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Kuper, A (1985) Cultural Anthropology. In Kuper, A & Kuper, J (eds), *The Social Science Encyclopedia*, London: Routledge.

- Lam, S.S.K., Chen, X.P. and Schaubroeck, J. (2002) Participative decision-making and employee performance in different cultures, *Academy of Management Journal* 45(4), pp.905–914.
- Landy, F.J. (1989) *Psychology of Work Behaviour*. 4th edn. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks Cole.
- Larsson, S. (2009) A Pluralist View of Generalization in Qualitative Research, *International Journal of Research & Method in Education*, 32:1, pp.25-38.
- Latham, G.P. and Locke E.A. (1979) Goal Setting- A Motivational Technique That Works, *Organizational Dynamics*, Autumn, pp.68-80.
- Latham, G.P. (2012) *Work Motivation*, London: Sage Publications.
- Latham G.P. and Ernst T.C. (2006) Keys to motivating tomorrow's workforce, *Human Resource Management Review* 16, pp.181-198.
- Leete, L. (2000) Wage Equity and Employee Motivation in Non-Profit Organizations. *Journal of Economic Behaviour & Organization*, Vol.43, pp.423-446.
- Legge, K. (2005) *Human Resource Management: Rhetorics and Realities*, Palgrave: New York.
- Lewin, K., Lippitt, R. and White, R.K., (1939) Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created Social Climates, *Journal of Social Psychology*, 10, pp.271-301.
- Lewin, M.W. (2000) Exploring Paradox: Toward A More Comprehensive Guide. *Academy of Management Review*, 25 (4), pp.760-776.
- Leventhal, G.S. (1976) What Should Be Done with Equity Theory? New Approaches to the Study of Fairness in Social Relationships. In Gergen, K.J. (ed.), *Social Exchange Theory*, Washington: John Wiley.
- Levy, S.R., Plaks, J.E. and Dweck, C.S. (1999) Modes of Social Thought: Implicit Theories and Social Understanding. In S. Chaiken and Y. Trope (Eds.), *Dual-Process Theories in Social Psychology*. New York: Guilford. pp. 179-202.
- Lewis, R.D. (2006) *When Cultures Collide*. 3d edn, Boston: Nicholas Brealey International.
- Liamputtong, P. (2011) *Focus Group Methodology: Principles and Practice*, California: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Lincoln, Y. S. and Guba, E. G. (1985) *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Lincoln Y.S., (1995) Emerging Criteria for Qualitative and Interpretive Research. *Qualitative Inquiry* 3, pp. 275–289.

- Lincoln, Y. S. and Guba, E. G. (2000) 'Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences', In N. K. Denzin and Y. S. Lincoln (eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, 2nd edition (pp.163-188), Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Lippitt, R. (1939) Field Theory and Experiment in Social Psychology: Autocratic and Democratic Group Atmospheres. *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 45, No. 1, pp. 26-49.
- Lisciandra, M. (2008) A Comparative Analysis of the Incentive Systems under Taylorism and Fordism. *Saggi/Essays*, pp.65-89.
- Lloyd, G. E. R. (2011) Multidimensional Reality. *Common Knowledge* 17,1, pp.27-30.
- Locke, E.A. and Latham, G.P. (1990) A Theory of Goal Setting and Task Performance.
- Locke, E.A. (1996) Motivation through Conscious Goal Setting, *Applied & Preventive Psychology*, 5, pp.117-124.
- Lollar, D. (1974) An Operationalization and Validation of Maslow's Need Hierarchy. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 34, pp.639-651.
- Longino, H. (1992) '*Essential Tensions--Phase Two*', in *A Mind of Her Own: Feminist Essays on Reason and Objectivity*, ed. Louise Antony and Charlotte Witt, Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Lord, R.G., Foti, R.J. and Phillips, J.S. (1982) *A theory of leadership categorization*. In: J.G. Hunt, U. Sekaran & C.A. Schriesheim (eds.), *Leadership: Beyond Establishment Views*, Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, pp.104-121.
- Lord, R.G., Foti, R. and De Vader, C. (1984) A test of Leadership Categorization Theory: Internal Structure, Information Processing, and Leadership Perceptions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 34, pp.343-378.
- Lord R.G. and Maher, K.J. (1991) *Leadership & Information Processing*. London: Unwin Hyman.
- Lukes, S. (2005) *Power: A Radical View*, 2nd edn. New York: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Lunenburg, F. C. (2011) Expectancy Theory of Motivation: Motivating by Altering Expectations. *International Journal of Management, Business, and Administration*, Vol. 15, no 1, pp.1-6.
- Machiavelli, N. (2008) *The Prince*. Trans. by J. Atkinson, Indianapolis: Hackett Publishing Company.
- Madison, D.S. (2012) *Critical Ethnography*, 2nd ed. London: Sage Publications.
- Maehr, M.L. (1974) Culture and Achievement Motivation. *American Psychologist*, 29, pp.887-896.

- Manolchev, C. and Lewis, D. (2014) *Experiencing Fairness in Conditions of Employment Precarity: A Displacement Approach to Organisational Justice*, paper presented at the Re-Constructing Fairness conference, Manchester, September.
- Marcuse, H. (1964) *One Dimensional Man*, Boston: Beacon Press.
- Marshall, Alfred (1890) *Principles of Economics*. Amherst: Prometheus Books. Published in 1997
- Marsh, R.M. and Mannari, H. (1971) Lifetime Commitment in Japan: Roles, Norms and Values. *American Journal of Sociology*, 76, pp.795-813.
- Marx, K. (1967) *Das Capital*, Vol.1, Berlin: Dietz.
- Marx, K. (1988) Economic and Philosophic Manuscripts of 1844, trans. Miligan, M., New York: Prometheus Books.
- Maslow A. H. (1943) A Theory of Human Motivation. *Psychological Review*, 50. pp. 370-396.
- Maslow, A.H. (1965) *Eupsychian management*. Homewood, IL: Dorsey.
- Maslow A.H. (1971) *The Farther Reaches of Human Nature*. New York: Viking Press.
- Maslow A.H. (1987) *Motivation and Personality*. 3rd ed., revised by R. Frager, J. Fadiman, C. McReynolds & R. Cox, New York: Harper & Row.
- Maslow, A.H. (2011) *Toward A Psychology of Being*. Blacksburg: Wilder Publications.
- Masterson, J. F. (2008) *Psychology: Overview*, in Ed. William A. Darity, Jr., 2nd edn. The International Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences, Volume 7". New York: Macmillan Publishing.
- Mathiason, J. (2008) What Kind of International Public Service Do We Need for the Twenty-First Century? *Global Governance*, 14, pp.127-133.
- Mayo, E. (1933) *The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization*. New York: MacMillan.
- Maxwell, J.A., (2009) *Designing a Qualitative Research*, in L. Bickman and D.J. Rog (eds.) *The Sage Handbook of Applied Social Research Methods*, 2nd Edn. California: Sage Publications.
- McClelland, David C., Clark, Russell A., Roby, Thornton B. and Atkinson, John W. (1949) The projective expression of needs. IV. The effect of the need for achievement on thematic apperception. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, Vol 39(2), Apr, pp. 242-255.
- McClelland, D. C., Atkinson, J. W., Clark, R. A., & Lowell, E. L. (1953) *The Achievement Motive*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc.

- McClelland, D. C., Atkinson, J. W., Clark, R. A., & Lowell, E. L. (1958) A scoring manual for the achievement motive. In J. W. Atkinson (Ed.), *Motives in fantasy, action, and society*, Princeton, NJ: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc.
- McClelland, D. C. (1961) *The Achieving Society*. Princeton, NJ: Van Nostrand.
- McClelland, D. C. and Watson, R.I.Jr. (1973) Power Motivation and Risk-taking Behaviour. *Journal of Personality*, 41, pp.121-239.
- McClelland, D. C. (1978) Managing Motivation to Expand Human Freedom. *American Psychologist*, March, pp.201-210.
- McClelland, D. C. (1985a) *Human Motivation*. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.
- McClelland, D. C. (1985b) How motives, skills, and values determine what people do. *American Psychologist*, 40(7), pp.812-825.
- McClelland, D. C. (1987) Notes for a Revised Theory of Motivation. In McClelland D.C. (ed), *Studies in Motivation*. New York: Appeton-Century-Crofts, Inc.
- McClelland D. C. (1992) Motivational Configurations, in C.P. Smith (ed.) *Motivation and Personality: Handbook of Thematic Content Analysis*, Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- McClelland D. C. and Koestner, R. (1992) The Achievement Motive in C.P. Smith (ed.) *Motivation and Personality: Handbook of Thematic Content Analysis*, Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- McClelland, D. C. and Burnham, D.H. (2003) Power is The Great Motivator. *Harvard Business Review*, January, pp. 117-126. Originally published in 1976.
- McCurdy, D.W., Spradley, J.P. and Dianna J.S. (2005) *The Cultural Experience: Ethnography in Complex Society*, 2nd edn., Illinois: Waveland Press, Inc.
- McIntyre, R. & Smith, D.W., (1989) *Theory of Intentionality*. In William R. McKenna & J. N. Mohanty (eds.), *Husserl's Phenomenology: A Textbook*. University Press of America, pp.147-179.
- McLaren, R.I. (1997) Organizational Culture in a Multicultural Organization, *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 63(1), pp.57-66.
- McShane, S. and Von Glinow, M. (2005) *Organizational Behaviour: Emerging Realities for the Workplace Revolution*. 3rd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- McSweeney, B. (2002) Hofstede's Model of National Culture Differences and Their Consequences: A Triumph of Faith- A Failure of Analysis, *Human Relations*, Vol.55(1), pp.89-118.
- Mead, M. (1970) *Culture and Commitment: A Study of the Generation Gap*. London: The Bodley Head Limited.

- Meletinsky, E.M. (2000) *The Poetics of Myth*. Trans. by G. Lanoue and A. Sadetsky, New York: Routledge.
- Michelmann, H.J. (1978) Multinational Staffing and Organizational Functioning in the Commission of the European Communities. *International Organization*, Vol.32, No.2, pp.477-496.
- Mill, J.S. (1859) *On Liberty*. New York: Dover Publications. Published in 2002 (Dover edn.)
- Mill, J.S. (1868) *Utilitarianism and the 1868 Speech on Capital Punishment*. 2nd edn., Cambridge: Hackett Publishing Company. Republished in 2001.
- Minkov, M. (2013) *Cross-Cultural Analysis*. Los Angeles: SAGE.
- Miron, D. and McClelland, D.C. (1979) The impact of Achievement Motivation Training on small business. *California Management Review*. 21(4), pp. 13-28.
- Mirza, N.A., Akhtar-Danesh, N., Noesgaard, C., Martin, L. and Staples, E. (2014) A Concept of Analysis of Abductive Reasoning, *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 70 (9), pp.1980-1994.
- Missoni, E. (2014) Transnational Hybrid Organizations, Global Public-Private Partnerships and Networks. In E. Missoni and D.Alesani (eds.), *Management of International Institutions and NGOs*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Mitchell, D.J.B., Lewin, D. and Lawler, E.E.III. (1990) Alternative Pay Systems, Firm Performance and Productivity in Blinder, A.S. (ed.) *Paying for Productivity: A Look at the Evidence*. Washington: The Brookings Institution.
- Miura, T. (2005a) What Has the Division of Labour Brought? A Lesson from Charles Babbage. *Fukuoka University Commerce Review* vol 50, 2, pp.119-141.
- Miura, T. (2005b) Did Fordism Take Up Taylorism? A Critique of Regulation Theory. *Fukuoka University Commerce Review*, 50/2*3, pp.143-164
- Moberg, M. (2013) *Engaging Anthropological Theory*, London: Routledge.
- Monk, I.H. (1992) *A History of Modern Political Thought*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- More, T. (1516/2009) *Utopia*, London: Penguin Books.
- Moore, J.D. (2012) *Visions of Culture*. Plymouth: Alta Mira Press.
- Moore, L.L., Grabsch, D.K. and Rotter, C. (2010) Using Achievement Motivation Theory to Explain Student Participation in a Residential Leadership Learning Community. *Journal of Leadership Education*, Volume 9, Issue 2, pp. 22-34.
- Morden, T. (1995) International Culture and Management. *Management Decision*, Vol.33, Iss.2, pp.16-21.

- Morgan, D. (1988) *Focus Groups as Qualitative Research*, London: Sage.
- Morrel, D.L., Ravlin, E.C., Ramsey, J.R. and Ward, A.K. (2013) Past Experience, Cultural Intelligence and Satisfaction with International Business Studies. *Journal of Teaching in International Business*, 24:1, pp.31-43.
- Morris, C.W. (1956) *Varieties of Human Value*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Morse J.M., Barrett M., Mayan M., Olson K. & Spiers J. (2002) Verification Strategies for Establishing Reliability and Validity in Qualitative Research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 1(2), pp.13-22.
- Morton, S.G. (1839) *Crania Americana; or A Comparative View of the Skulls of Various Aboriginal Nations of North and South America*. Philadelphia, J.Dobson.
- Moustakas, C. (1994) *Phenomenological Research Methods*. California: Sage Publications.
- Mulder, M. (1976) *Reduction of Power Differences in Practice: The Power Distance Reduction Theory and Its Applications*. In G. Hofstede and M.S. Kassem (Eds.), *European Contributions to organization theory* (pp.79-94). Assen, Netherlands: Van Gorcum.
- Mulder, M. (1977) *the Daily Power Game*. Leiden, Netherlands: Martinus Nijhoff.
- Mulder, M., Ritsema van Eck, J.R., and De Jong, R.D. (1971). An Organization in Crisis and Non-Crisis Situations. *Human Relations*, 24, pp.19-41.
- Munirat, Y.O. and Nzelibe, G.C. (2012) Transformational leadership for excellent result: Challenges for women in management and executive positions in Nigeria. *Journal of Economics and International Finance Vol. 4 (3)*, pp. 61–68.
- Murray, H. A. (1938) *Explorations in Personality*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Murrell, H. (1976) *Motivation at Work*. London: Methuen.
- Musto, M. (2010) Revisiting Marx's Concept of Alienation. *Socialism and Democracy*, 24:3, pp.79-101.
- Nadler, D.A. and Lawler, III, E.E. (1979) *Motivation: A Diagnostic Approach*, New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Nagle, B., & Williams, N. (2009) *Methodology Brief: Introduction to Focus Groups*. Center for Assessment, Planning and Accountability. pp.1-12.
- Neilson, W. and Stowe, J. (2002) A Further Examination of Cumulative Prospect Theory Parameterizations. *The Journal of Risk and Uncertainty*, 24:1, pp.31-46.
- Neuman, W. L. (2011) *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*, 7th edn. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

- Nevins, A. (1954) Ford: *The Times, The Man, The Company*. New York: Charles Scribner's.
- Newman, K.L. and Nollen, S.D. (1996) Culture and congruence: the fit between management practices and national culture, *Journal of International Business Studies* 27(4), pp.753–779.
- Ng, K. (2015) Ideology Critique from Hegel and Marx to Critical Theory, *Constellations Volume 22, No: 3*, pp. 393-404.
- Nielsen, J. (1992) *Finding Usability Problems through Heuristic Evaluation*, Proceedings ACM CHI'92 Conference, May 3-7, CA: Monterey, pp. 373-380.
- Ngaire, W. (1999) Good Governance in International Organizations. *Global Governance, Vol 5, 1*, pp.1-21.
- Nolley, S.A. and Ayman, R. (2005) Children's Implicit Theory of Leadership. In B. Schyns and J.R. Meindl, *Implicit Leadership Theories*, Greenwich: Information Age Publishing. Pp.227-274.
- Norman, W.T. and Goldberg, L.R. (1966) Raters, Ratees and Randomness in Personality Structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 4,6, pp.681-691.
- Norman and Yvonna S. Lincoln (eds), (2011) *Qualitative Research*. 4th edn., California: Sage Publications.
- Nye, J. S. (2009) *Understanding International Conflicts*. 7th ed. New York: Pearson.
- O'Connor D. and Yballe L. (2007) Maslow Revisited: Constructing a Road Map of Human Nature, *Journal of Management Education December vol. 31 no.6*, pp. 738-756.
- Offermann, L.R., Kennedy, J.K. and Wirtz, P.W. (1994) Implicit Leadership Theories: Content, Structure, and Generalizability. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 5(1), pp.43-58.
- Oishi, S., Diener, E.F., Lucas, R.E., and Eunkook M. Suh (1999) Cross-Cultural Variations in Predictors of Life Satisfaction: Perspectives from Needs and Values. *Pers Soc Psychol Bull August, 25*, pp.980-990,
- Onwuegbuzie, A.J, Johnson, R. B. and Collins K.M. (2009) Call For Mixed Analysis: A Philosophical Framework for Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches, *International Journal of Multiple Research Approaches Vol. 3, Iss.2*, pp.114–139.
- O'Reilly, K. (2009) *Key Concepts in Ethnography*, London: SAGE Publications.
- Overvold G. (1987) The Imperative of Organizational Harmony: A Critique of Contemporary Human Relations Theory. *Journal of Business Ethics [serial online]. October; 6(7)*: pp.559-565. Available from: Business Source Complete, Ipswich, MA. Accessed 01 November 2014.

- Ouchi, W.G. (1981) *Theory Z: How American Business Can Meet the Japanese Challenge*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Ouchi, W.G. and Price, R.L. (1978) Hierarchies, Clans, and Theory Z: A new Perspective on Organization Development. *Organizational Dynamics, Autumn*, pp.25-44.
- Ouchi, W.G. and Wilkins, A.L. (1985) Organizational Culture. *Annual Review Sociology, 11*, pp.457-483.
- Owen, R. (1849) *A New View of Society and Other Writings*. London: Penguin Books. Republished in 1991.
- Oyserman, D. (1993) The lens of personhood: viewing the self and others in a multicultural society, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 65*(5), pp.993–1009.
- Ozawa, K., Crosby, M. and Crosby, F. (1996) Individualism and resistance to affirmative action: a comparison of Japanese and American samples, *Journal of Applied Social Psychology 26*(13), pp.1138–1152.
- Palloix, C. (1976) The Labour Process: From Fordism to Neo-Fordism, (Trans. By John Mephram and Mike Sonenscher) in *CSE Pamphlet No. 1: The Labour Process and Class Strategies*, London: Conference of Socialist Economists, pp.46-67.
- Parel, A.J. (1992) *The Machiavellian Cosmos*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Parry, K. W., and Bryman, A. (2006) Leadership in Organizations. In Stewart R. Clegg, Cynthia Hardy, Thomas B. Lawrence, and Walter R. Nord (eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Organization Studies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE, pp.446-69.
- Parsons, T. (1951) *The social system*. Glencoe, IL: Free Press.
- Pascale, R.T. and Athos, A.G. (1981) *The Art of Japanese Management*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Pearce, D.W. (ed.) (1992) *The MIT Dictionary of Modern Economics*, 4th edn., Massachusetts: The MIT Press.
- Peirce, C. (1931) *Collected Papers*, Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Peirce, C. (1955) *Philosophical Writings of Peirce*. Justus Buchler (Ed.). New York: Dover.
- Pensky, M. N (1999) Third Generation Critical Theory, In Critchley S. & Schroeder W.R. (eds.), *A Companion to Continental Philosophy*, Oxford: Blackwell.
- Perelman, M. (2010) Adam Smith: Class, Labour and the Industrial Revolution. *Journal of Economic Behaviour & Organization 76*, pp.481-496.

- Perry, J.L. and Hondeghem, A. (2008) Building Theory and Empirical Evidence about Public Service Motivation. *International Public Management Journal*, 11(1), pp.3-12.
- Perry J., Hondeghem A. and Wise L. (2010). Revisiting the Motivational Bases of Public Service: Twenty Years of Research and an Agenda for the Future. *Public Administration Review*, September-October 2010, pp.681-690.
- Peterson, M.F. (1988) *PM Theory in Japan and China: What's in it for the United States?* *Organizational Dynamics*, 16(4), pp.22-38.
- Pettigrew, A.M. (1979) On Studying Organizational Cultures. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24 pp.570-581.
- Pettigrew, A.M. (2000) Foreword. In Ashkanasy, N.M., Wilderom, C.P.M. and Peterson, M.F. (eds.), *Handbook of Organizational Culture & Climate*. London: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Petrovic, G. (1963) Marx's Theory of Alienation, *International Phenomenological Society*, Vol. 23, No.3, pp.419-426.
- Pindur, W., Rogers, S.E. and Kim, P.S., The History of Management: A Global Perspective. *Journal of Management History*, Vol.1 Iss.1, pp.59-77.
- Popper, Karl (2002) *The Logic of Scientific Discovery*, London: The Routledge Classics.
- Prewitt, J., Weil, R. and McClure, A. (2011) Developing Leadership in Global and Multi-Cultural Organizations. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, Vol.2, No.13, pp.13-20.
- Putnam, R.D. (1993) *Making Democracy Work*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Plato (2008) Alcibiades I. [e-book] The Project Gutenberg. Available through <http://www.gutenberg.org/files/1676/1676-h/1676-h.htm> [Accessed 03 January 2015]
- Plato (2013) The Republic, [e-book] Pennsylvania: The Pennsylvania State University Available through <http://www2.hn.psu.edu/faculty/jmanis/plato/republic.pdf> [Accessed 04 January 2015]
- Popper, K. (2011) *The Open Society and Its Enemies*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Porter, L.W. (1961) A Study of Perceived Need Satisfactions in Bottom and Middle Management Jobs, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 45, pp.1-10.
- Price, B. (1987) *One best way: Frank and Lillian Gilbreth's transformation of scientific management, 1885-1940*, unpublished PhD dissertation, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN.

- Price, T.L. (2008) Kant's advice for leaders: "No, you aren't special". *The Leadership Quarterly Volume 19, Issue 4, August*, pp.478–487
- Pyszczynski, T., Greenberg, J., Solomon, S., Arndt, J. & Schimel, J. (2004) Why do people need self-esteem? A theoretical and empirical review. *Psychological Bulletin* (130), pp.435–468.
- Rachels, James, (2001) Theory and Practice, 2nd edition, Lawrence Becker and Charlotte Becker (eds.), *Encyclopedia of Ethics*. New York: Routledge, vol. 3, pp. 1706-1708.
- Rapport, N. and Overing, J. (2000) *Social and Cultural Anthropology*. London: Routledge.
- Reichertz, J. (2004) Abduction, Deduction and Induction in Qualitative Research, In Flick, U., Kardoff, E.V. and Steinke, I. (eds.), Bryan Janner (trans.), *A Companion to Qualitative Research*, London: Sage Publications.
- Reinalda, B. (2013) International Organization as A Field of Research Since 1910. In B. Reinalda, (ed.) *Routledge Handbook of International Organization*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Revelle, W. and Michaels, E. J. (1976) Theory of achievement-motivation revisited - implications of inertial tendencies. *Psychological Review*, 83(5), pp.394–404.
- Reynolds, P.D. (1986) Organizational Culture as Related to Industry, Position, and Performance: A Preliminary Report. *Journal of Management Studies*, 23, pp.333-345.
- Reynolds, K.J., Turner, J.C., Branscombe, N.R., Mavor, K.I., Bizumic, B., and Scotland, James (2012) Exploring the Philosophical Underpinnings of Research: Relating Ontology and Epistemology to the Methodology and Methods of the Scientific, Interpretive, and Critical Research Paradigms, *English Language Teaching; Vol. 5, No. 9*, pp.9-16.
- Ricardo, D. (1817/1911/2004) *The Principles of Political Economy and Taxation*. London: J.M. Dent & Sons, Ltd.
- Ritz, A., Brewer, G.A. and Neumann, O. (2013) *Public Service Motivation: A Systematic Literature Review and Outlook*. Paper presented at the 2013 Public Management Research Association Conference, University of Madison-Wisconsin (USA). Madison, WI, USA.
- Rodrigues, C. (1996) *International Management*, Minneapolis: West Publishing Company.

- Rouse, J. (1996) 'Feminism and the Social construction of Scientific Knowledge'. In D.R. Hiley, J.F. Bohman and R. Shusterman (Eds), *The Interpretive Turn* (pp.42-57), Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.
- Rousseau, J.J. (1762/1968) *The Social Contract, or Principles of Political Right*, London: Penguin Books.
- Rush, F. (2004) 'Conceptual Foundations of Early Critical Theory'. In F. Rush (ed.) *the Cambridge Companion to Critical Theory*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Russett, B., Oneal, J.R. and Davis, D.R. (1998) the Third Leg of the Kantian Tripod for Peace: International Organizations and Militarized Disputes. *International Organization*, 52(3), pp.441-467.
- Rutledge, L.S. (2008) *Motivation and the Professional African American Woman*. Indiana: Author House.
- Ryan, R., and E. Deci., (2000a) Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions. *Contemp. Educ. Psychol.* 25. pp. 54-67.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000b) Self-Determination Theory and the Facilitation of Intrinsic Motivation, Social Development, and Well-Being. *American Psychologist*, 55, pp.68-78.
- Sagie A, Elizer D (1999) Achievement Motive and Entrepreneurial Orientation: A Structural Analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 20 (3), pp.375-387.
- Saint-Simon (1813/1964) *Social Organization, Science of Man and Other Writings*, New York: Harper Row.
- Salomons, D. (2004) Good Intentions to Naught: The Pathology of HRM at the UN. In D.Dijkzeul and Y.Beigbeder (eds.), *Rethinking International Organizations: Pathology and Promise*. New York: Behghahn Books. Pp.111-139.
- Savino, D. (2009) Louis D. Brandeis and His Role Promoting Scientific Management as A Progressive Movement. *Journal of Management History*, Vol.15, Iss.1, pp.38-49.
- Sayer, A. (1992) *Method in Social Science: A Realist Approach*, 2nd ed., London: Routledge.
- Schein, E.H. (2004) *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. Third ed. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc.
- Scheiwiller, S. (2013) *The impact of Public Service Motivation in International Organizations: the case of Swiss international civil servants*. Unpublished master thesis. University of Geneva Department of Political Science.

- Schneider, D.J. (1973) Implicit Personality Theory: A Review. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol.79, No.5, pp.294-309.
- Schostak, J. (2006) *Interviewing and Representation in Qualitative Fieldwork*. New York: Open University Press.
- Schroeder, R. (1992) *Max Weber and the Sociology of Culture*. London: Sage Publications.
- Schwandt, T.A. (2000) *Three Epistemology Stances for Qualitative Inquiry: Interpretivism, Hermeneutics and Social Constructivism*, In N.K. Denzin and Y.Lincoln (eds), *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Schwandt, T.A. (2001) *Dictionary of Qualitative Inquiry*, 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Schwartz, M.M. and Gains L.S. (1974) Self-Actualization and The Human Tendency for Varied Experience. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 38, pp.423-427.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1992). The universal content and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 25: pp.1 – 62.
- Schwartz, S.H. (1999). *A theory of Cultural Values and Some Implications for Work*, *International Association of Applied Psychology*, 48(1), p.23-47.
- Schwartz, S. H. (2006). A theory of cultural value orientations: Explication and applications. *Comparative Sociology*, 5(2-3), pp. 137-182.
- Schwartz, S. H. (2012). An Overview of the Schwartz Theory of Basic Values. *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture*, 2(1). <http://dx.doi.org/10.9707/2307-0919.1116>.
- Scotland, J. (2012) Exploring the Philosophical Underpinnings of Research: Relating Ontology and Epistemology to the Methodology and Methods of the Scientific, *Interpretive, and Critical Research Paradigms, English Language Teaching; Vol. 5, No. 9*, pp.9-16.
- Scroggins, W.A. and Benson, P.G. (2010) International Human Resource Management: Diversity, Issues and Challenges. *Personnel Review*, Vol.39, Iss.4, pp.409-413.
- Seiler, S., Lent, B., Pinkowska, M. and Pinazza, M. (2012) An Integrated Model of Factors Influencing Project Managers' Motivation —Findings from a Swiss Survey", *International Journal of Project Management*, Volume 30:8, Nov, pp. 60-72.
- Seyranian, V. (2009) Contingency Theories of Leadership. *Encyclopedia of Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*. Ed. John M. Levine and Michael A. Hogg.

- Siehl, C. and Martin, J. (1981) *Learning Organizational Culture*. Working Paper, Graduate School of Business, Stanford University.
- Sirgy, M.J. (1986) A Quality of Life Theory Derived from Maslow's Developmental Perspective. *American Journal of Economics and Sociology* 45(3), pp.329-342.
- Skalen, P. (2004) New Public Management Reform and the Construction of Organizational Identities. *The International Journal of Public Sector Management*, Vol.17, No.3, pp.251-263.
- Smircich, L. (1983) Concepts of Culture and Organizational Analysis, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol.28, No.3, pp.339-358.
- Smith, A. (1776) *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations...* Abridged by Dickey, L. Cambridge: Hackett Publishing Company. Republished in 1993.
- Smith, I. and Boyns, T (2005) British management theory and practice: the impact of Fayol, *Management Decision*, Vol. 43 Iss: 10, pp.1317 – 1334.
- Smith, M.E., Thorpe, R. and Jackson, P. (2012) *Management Research*, 4th edn, London: Sage Publications.
- Steel, P. and Konig, C. J. (2006) Integrating Theories of Motivation. *Academy of Management Review*, 31 (4). Pp.889–913.
- Steers, R.M., Mowday, R.T. and Shapiro D.L. (2004) The Future of Work Motivation Theory, *Academy of Management Review*, Vol.29, No.3, pp.379-387.
- Stewart, D. W., Shamdasani, P. N., and Rook, D. W. (2007) *Focus Groups: Theory and Practice*, 2nd edn. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stewart, D. W., Shamdasani, P. N., and Rook, D. W. (2009) Group Depths Interviews, in Bickman L. and Rog, D.J. (eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Applied Social Research Methods*, 2nd edn. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stocking, G.W. (1966) Franz Boas and The Culture Concept In Historical Perspective. *American Anthropologist, New Series*, Vol, No.68, pp.867-882.
- Stogdill, Ralph M. (1948) Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature. *The Journal of Psychology: Interdisciplinary and Applied*, Volume 25, Issue 1, pp.35-71.
- Stojanovic, A. (2008) *Beyond the Call of a Duty- Is There a Difference in Motivation of Staff in Profit and Non-profit Organizations in Bosnia and Herzegovina*. Unpublished Master Thesis. East European Studies. Berlin University.

- Subašić, E. (2010) Interactionism in Personality and Social Psychology: An Integrated Approach to Understanding the Mind and Behaviour. *European Journal of Personality, Volume 24, Issue 5*, pp.458–482.
- Swain, J.W. (2002) Machiavelli and Modern Management. *Management Decision, 40/3*, pp.281-287.
- Swartz, D. (1997) *Culture & Power*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Takala, T. (1998) Plato on Leadership. *Journal of Business Ethics, 17*, pp.785-798.
- Taylor, F.W. (1903/2008) *Shop Management*. Sioux Falls: Nu Vision Publications-LLC.
- Taylor, F.W. (1911) *The Principles of Scientific Management*. New York and London: Harper & Brothers Publishers.
- Templer, K.J., Tay, C. and Chandrasekar, N.A. (2006) Motivational Cultural Intelligence, Realistic Job Preview, Realistic Living Conditions Preview and Cross-Cultural Adjustment. *Organization Management, Vol.31*, pp.154-173.
- Thomas J. and O'Maolchatha, (1989) Reassessing The Critical Metaphor: An Optimist Revisionist View, *Justice Quarterly, 6*, pp.143-172.
- Thomas, J. (1993) *Doing Critical Ethnography*, California: Sage Publications.
- Thorn, I.M. (2012) Leadership in International Organizations: Global Leadership Competencies. *The Psychologist-Manager Journal, 15*, pp.158-163.
- Thrash, T. M. and Elliot, A. J. (2002) Implicit and Self-Attributed Achievement Motives: Concordance and Predictive Validity. *Journal of Personality: 70:5*, pp.729-755.
- Tichy, N.M. (1982) Managing Change Strategically: The Technical, Political and Cultural Keys. *Organizational Dynamics, Autumn*, pp.59-80.
- Tippet, J. and Kluvers, R. (2009) Employee Rewards and Motivation in Non-Profit Organizations: Case Study from Australia. *International Journal of Business and Management, Vol.4, No.3*, pp.7-14.
- Tiwari, N. (2013) Managing Human Resources in International Organizations. *Global Journal of Management and Business Studies, Vol. 3, No.4*, pp.355-360.
- Tobin, G., & Begley, C. (2004) Methodological Rigour within a Qualitative Framework. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 48(4)*, pp.388-396.
- Toren, C. (1996) Ethnography: Theoretical Background, in John T.E Richardson, *Handbook of Qualitative Research Methods*, Leicester: The British Psychological Society.

- Trexler, J.T. and Schub, A.J. (1971) Personality Dynamics in A Military Training Command and Its Relationship to Maslow's Motivation Hierarchy. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 1, pp.245-253.
- Trigg, A.B. (2004) Deriving the Engel Curve: Pierre Bourdieu and the Social Critique of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. *Review of Social Economy* Vol. 62, Iss.3, pp.393-406.
- Trompenaars, F., and Hampden-Turner, C. (1999) *Riding The Waves of culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Global Business*. 2nd ed. New York: McGraw – Hill.
- Turner, J. H. (1987) Toward a Sociological Theory of Motivation. *American Sociological Review*, 52, pp.15-27.
- Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1992) Advances in prospect theory: Cumulative representation of uncertainty. *Journal of Risk and Uncertainty*, 5, pp.297–323.
- Tyler, S.A. (1986) *Post-Modern Ethnography: From Document of the Occult to Occult Document*, In Clifford, J. and Marcus, G.E. (eds.), *Writing Culture*, California: University of California Press, pp.122-140.
- Tylor, E.B. (1871) *Primitive Culture*. London: J. Murray.
- Uhl-Bien, M. (2005) Implicit Theories of Relationships in the Workplace. In B. Schyns and J.R. Meindl, *Implicit Leadership Theories*, Greenwich: Information Age Publishing. Pp.103-133.
- United Nations Development Programme, Governance for sustainable human development, UNDP policy document, New York, 1997.
- United Nations International Civil Service Commission (UNICSC) (2008), *Attitude Survey of Staff Serving throughout the UN Common System*. New York: UN Publications.
- Vandenabeele, W. and Ban, C. (2009) *The Impact of Public Service Motivation in an International Organization: Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment in the European Commission*. Paper presented at the International Public Service Motivation Conference, Bloomington, 7-9 June 2009.
- Vansteenkiste, M., Lens W. and Deci E.L. (2006) Intrinsic Versus Extrinsic Goal Contents in Self-Determination Theory: Another Look at the Quality of Academic Motivation, *Educational Psychologist*, 41(1), pp.19-31.
- Vogel, E. (1979) *Japan as Number One: Lessons for America*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

- Vogt, C.C. (1864) *Lectures on Man: His Place in Creation and in the History of Earth*. London: Anthropological Society of London.
- Vroom, V.H. (1964/1995) *Work and Motivation*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Wacquant, L. (2008) *Pierre Bourdieu*. In R. Stones (Ed.), *Key Sociological Thinkers*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Wahba M.A. and Bridwell L.G. (1976) Maslow Reconsidered: A Review of Research on the Need Hierarchy Theory, *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance* 15, pp.212-240.
- Waisfisz, B. (2007) An Organizational Cultural Perspective. *Itim Focus*. Available through http://geerthofstede.com/tl_files/art%20organisational%20culture%20perspective.pdf [Accessed 18 March 2015]
- Waldenfels, B. (1999) *Merlau-Ponty*, in Critchley S. & Schroeder W.R. (eds.), *A Companion to Continental Philosophy*, Oxford: Blackwell.
- Wallin, E.W. (1912) Individual and Group Efficiency. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol 9 (10), Oct, pp.390-397.
- Wanous, J.P. and Zwany, A. (1977) A Cross-Sectional Test of Need Hierarchy Theory. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 18, pp.78-97.
- Weber, M. (1930/2001) *The Protestant Ethic and The Spirit of Capitalism*. London: Routledge.
- Weber, M. (1947) *The Theory of Social and Economic Organizations*. Henderson, A.M and Parsons, T. (Trans.), Parsons, T. (ed.), New York: The Free Press.
- Weber, M. (1949) *The Methodology of the Social Sciences*. Glencoe, Ill: Free Press.
- Weber, M. (1978) *Economy and Society*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Weijers, D.M. (2012) *Hedonism and Happiness in Theory and Practice*. Unpublished PhD Thesis, Victoria University of Wellington.
- Weiner, B. (1979) A Theory of Motivation for Some Classroom Experience. *Journal of Education Psychology*, Vol.71, No.1, pp.3-25.
- Weiner, B. (1985) An Attributional Theory of Achievement Motivation and Emotion. *Psychological Review*, Vol.92, No.4, pp.548-573.
- Weiss, T.G. (2013) *Reinvigorating the Second United Nations*. In B. Reinalda, (ed.) *Routledge Handbook of International Organization*. Oxon: Routledge.

- Westover, J.H. and Taylor, J. (2010) International Differences in Job Satisfaction: The Effects of Public Service Motivation, Rewards and Work Relations. *Internal Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, Vol.59, Iss.8, pp.811-828.
- Wilkinson, Adrian (1998) Empowerment: theory and practice, *Personnel Review*, Vol. 27 Iss: 1, pp.40 – 56.
- Williams, R. M., Jr. (1968) *Values*. In E. Sills (Ed.), *International Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*. New York: Macmillan.
- Williams W. and Lewis D. (2008) Strategic Management Tools and Public Sector Management: The challenge of context specificity. *Public Management Review* 10, (5), pp.653-671.
- Williamson, T. (2008) The Good Society and The Good soul: Plato's Republic on Leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19, pp.397-408.
- Wilson, J.M. (1995) Henry Ford's Just-In-Time System, *International Journal of Operations and Production Management*, 15(12), pp.59-75.
- Wilson, J. (1973) *Introduction to Social Movements*. New York: Basic Books.
- Wilson, D.S., Near, D. and Miller, R.R. (1996) Machiavellianism: A Synthesis of the Evolutionary and Psychological Literatures. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol.119, No.2, pp.285-299.
- Wilson, E. J. (2008) Hard Power, Soft Power, Smart Power. *ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences*, Issue 616, pp. 110-124.
- Winter, D.G. (1992) Power Motivation Revisited in C.P. Smith (ed.) *Motivation and Personality: Handbook of Thematic Content Analysis*, Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Witzel, M. (2003) *Fifty Key Figures in Management*. London: Routledge.
- Wodak, R. and Boukala, S. (2015) (Supra) National Identity and Language: Rethinking National and European Migration Policies and the Linguistic Integration of Migrants. *Cambridge University Press Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 35, pp. 253–273.
- Woods, N. (2000) The Challenge of Good Governance for the IMF and the World Bank Themselves. *World Development*, Vol.28, No.5, pp.823-841.
- World Bank, 1989. *From Crisis to Sustainable Growth- Sub-Saharan Africa: a long-term perspective study*, Washington DC: The World Bank.
- Wu, W. (2012) The Relations between Incentives to Learn and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. *Physics Procedia*, 24, pp.1335-1342.

Xenikou, A. and Furnham, A. (2013) *Group Dynamics & Organizational Culture*. London: Palgrave Millan.

Yearbook of International Organizations, 2014-2015, Volumes 1A & 1B.

Yukl, G. (2011) Contingency Theories of effective Leadership. In Bryman, A., Collinson, D., Grint, K., Jackson, B. and Uhl-Bien, M. (eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Leadership*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Zettler, I. and Solga, M. (2013) Not Enough of a Dark Trait? Linking Machiavellianism to Job Performance. *European Journal of Personality*, 27, pp.545-554.

Zuffo, G.R. (2011) Taylor is Dead, Hurray Taylor! The "Human Factor" in Scientific Management: Between Ethics, Scientific Psychology and Common Sense. *Journal of Business & Management*, Vol. 17 Issue 1, pp.23-41.

INTERNET SOURCES

<http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/motivation.html> Accessed on 05 January 2015.

www.cabot.net/buttons/unexpected.php Accessed on 15 January 2015.

<http://diversitypropaganda.blogspot.com/> Accessed on 02 February 2015.

<http://www.intracen.org/itc/about/mission-and-objectives/> Accessed on 22 January 2016.

<http://www.peopleinaid.org/resources/publications.aspx>. Accessed on 09 July 2015.

www.selfdeterminationtheory.org/theory/ Accessed on 25 December 2014.

<http://www.ststudy.co.uk/media/other/30781/Electionpdf.pdf> Accessed on 19 December 2014.

<http://unctad.org/en/Pages/AboutUs.aspx> Accessed on 20 January 2016.

<https://web.duke.edu/secmod/biographies/Comte.pdf> Accessed on 01 March 2015.

https://www.wto.org/english/news_e/pres97_e/pr79_e.htm Accessed on 18 December 2015.

https://www.wto.org/english/thewto_e/whatis_e/inbrief_e/inbr00_e.htm Accessed on 15 January 2016.

<http://www.who.int/about/what-we-do/en/> Accessed on 25 January 2016.

<http://www.who.int/about/governance/en/> Accessed on 25 January 2016.